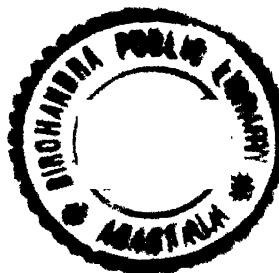


POLICE ADMINISTRATION

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POLICE ADMINISTRATION

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To

Henry and Sally Jo

PREFACE

Lack of uniformity in current police practices in this country raises questions as to the relative merit of the widely divergent methods. While greater uniformity resulting from a more widespread adoption of superior procedures is desirable, a uniformity that prevents experimentation in search of improved methods is undesirable. It is hoped that this book will promote the adoption of superior procedures. It is also hoped that it will stimulate experimentation that will result in improving them.

The book has been written for the critical student of police problems, regardless of his rank or station. It describes superior practices in all branches and at all levels of police service. It analyzes the organization structure, administrative practices, and operating procedures of police forces in this country. The analysis is not by comparisons between departments but by consideration of the fundamental purpose of each practice and the principles to be followed in achieving it. On this basis specific practices have been arbitrarily recommended for their superiority.

I hope that I have offended no one by this arbitrary presentation. To have treated controversial points in any other way would have weakened the effectiveness of the work. We do not progress so long as we sit on the fence.

The principal merit of this book is derived from friends who have assisted in its preparation. Without the stimulating encouragement and guidance of August Vollmer, it would not have been written. Franklin Kreml, Ervis Lester, M. Edwin O'Neill, and Wyman Vernon have offered useful suggestions, although none of them can be held responsible for views expressed that may be considered controversial. Laverne Burchfield assisted greatly in the arrangement of the subject matter and in its editing. Mrs. Marjorie Deuel and my son, Henry, typed the manuscript. To all of these I am deeply grateful.

O. W. WILSON

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Chapter 1

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT

Modern civilization continues to be plagued with her ageless infirmities of poverty, disease, ignorance, and crime. Great strides have been made in recent years, however, in improving the health and economic security of the people, and education is gradually overcoming ignorance. Similar satisfactory progress cannot be reported in the battle against crime. While lack of complete, reliable statistics makes demonstrable conclusions impossible, there is reason to believe that the criminality of the people is not diminishing. And this in spite of advances in health, welfare, and education.

The failure of society to diminish criminality imposes great handicaps on her people. It impairs somewhat the joy of living. Lives and property are rendered insecure, the peace is frequently disturbed, and some persons are subjected to degrading and terrifying criminal acts. The economic cost of crime reaches staggering proportions, although it cannot be accurately computed. If it could be directed into industrial production, the wealth of the nation and of its individual members would be immeasurably increased. Direct economic losses to criminals amount to tremendous sums, but these represent only a part of the total cost of crime. To this cost must be added that of administering criminal justice. The police, the prosecutors and criminal courts, the probation and parole systems, and the penal and correctional institutions are all heavy drains on the public exchequer; their costs seem to grow out of proportion to the increased cost of other government functions. In addition, unproductive lives wasted in criminal activities and in penal institutions represent a terrific loss. To the relatives and friends of the unfortunate criminals and of their victims in assaults, rapes, and murders, the sorrow and anguish is even more important than the money cost of crime.

Criminality is a complex social illness that has its source in man's birth and life. His experiences mold his inherited characteristics and thus determine his attitudes and feelings. And it is these that ordain how he will behave, for as a man thinks and feels, so is he.

The genes and chromosomes inherited from past generations and all the varied experiences of modern life determine criminality. From this may be seen the complexity of the problem of delinquency prevention.

The causal criminality factors are so multitudinous and capable of such an infinite variety of combinations as to render their statistical analysis and evaluation extremely difficult. And the factors are discovered in every field of human endeavor. All persons and institutions that participate in the experiences of an individual influence his personality and consequently play a part in his development into a useful citizen or a criminal. The prevention of criminality, therefore, cannot be the exclusive task of one community agency. All must participate if desirable results are to be achieved.

The police, however, find themselves on the firing line in the battle against crime. It seems unlikely in the foreseeable future that criminality will be so diminished that agencies presently engaged in the administration of criminal justice may be disbanded. So long as there are criminals, society must be protected from their depredations. Criminal activities must be repressed, and failing in this the police must apprehend the criminals in order that their ailment may be treated when it is remediable; otherwise, they must be kept in custody as a protection to society.

The Police Function. The protection of life and property against criminal attack and the preservation of the peace have always been the primary purpose of police departments. Police protection must also be provided against the harmful acts, both willful and inadvertent, of the noncriminal as well as the criminal class. In addition, police departments are charged with the enforcement of a wide variety of state and local laws, ordinances, and regulations dealing with all sorts of subjects. Many of these are designed to safeguard the morals of the community, and through their enforcement the police department becomes the principal agency of society for protection against immoral conduct. For every ill or abuse the typical American response is "There ought to be a law against that," with the result that the statute books and city ordinances are filled with prohibitions against conduct which many persons regard as innocent. The American faith in the efficacy of laws, and failure to recognize the difficulties of enforcement, have made more arduous the task of police departments.

Police Duties. In order to accomplish their purpose, the police must control people and their environment in such a manner as to obtain compliance with criminal laws and other regulations. Failing in this objective, they must apprehend offenders so that they may be subjected to treatment intended to diminish the likelihood of future violations by them and by others. Police duties may be classified according to their more immediate objectives as (1) the prevention of the development of criminal and antisocial tendencies in individuals; (2) the repression

of the criminal activities of those so inclined; (3) the arrest of criminals, the recovery of stolen property, and the preparation of cases for presentation in court; and (4) the regulation of people in their noncriminal activities (as, for example, the regulation of traffic) and the performance of a variety of nonregulatory services.

Police Problems of Today. New threats to the peace, comfort, security, and welfare of citizens make police tasks today different from those of a hundred years ago, although this fundamental purpose remains unchanged. New inventions and social changes have caused new problems, and the solutions of many of them have required new procedures. It is asserted that crime has been stimulated by immigration and migration, with their problems of assimilation; by blighted slum areas resulting from rapid urban population increases, concentrations, and movements; by the misuse of the press and radio; by alliances between criminals and ostensibly law-abiding citizens, some of them officeholders and political figures in the community; and by the inevitable backwash of war. The adaptation of new inventions to criminal use has imposed additional burdens on the police. The use of the automobile by criminals, its influence in reducing the effectiveness of the home in social and family control, and its more direct influence on delinquency also have affected the crime rate. Traffic accidents and congestion now demand a large part of police attention, and transient populations resulting from rapid and easy transportation have increased the growing list of police problems.

Broadened Social Concept. A broader social concept on the part of the police has resulted in a more positive philosophy of service. This is outlined by one department in its code as follows:¹

To assist the public in their compliance with regulations; to save unfortunate offenders from unnecessary humiliation, inconvenience, and distress; with no compromise for crime, to be relentless toward the criminal but with judgment charitable toward the minor offender; never to arrest if a citation will suffice; never to cite if a warning would be better; never to scold or reprimand, but to inform and request.

The old police philosophy of "throw 'em in jail" has changed to a new philosophy of keeping people out of jail. Police service has broadened to include certain aspects of social service for which the police are particularly well suited; some cases have more than ordinary social-welfare significance, notably those involving the mentally defective, the very young, the very old, and family relationships. Police service today extends beyond mere routine investigation and disposition of complaints; it also has as its objective the welfare of the individual and of society.

¹ The Square Deal Code of the Wichita Police Department.

If society is to be effectively safeguarded against crime, the police must actively seek out and destroy delinquency-inducing influences in the community and assist in providing suitable treatment for the maladjusted.

Changes in Police Methods. Police methods have changed greatly during the past hundred years. The police today use almost every conceivable means of transportation: boats, skates, snowshoes, horses, bicycles, motorcycles, automobiles, and airplanes. They likewise have available a wide variety of means of communication; the older devices of the whistle and the rap on the pavement with a night stick have given way to visual and auditory recall and call boxes, the telephone, teletype, and radio, and these in the immediate future will be supplemented by television and radar. Great progress has also been made in the improvement of methods of investigation; scientific crime detection, with its use of physical evidence, the camera, the police laboratory, and the lie detector, is now commonplace. It is impossible for the average patrolman to be skilled in all the diverse requirements of modern police service, and consequently the specialist has appeared. The laboratory examiner or analyst, referred to in this book as a criminalist,² the polygraph or lie-detector operator, the personal-identification expert, the radio technician, the psychiatric social worker, the traffic engineer, the statistician, and the personnel director are all specialists who have been made members of police departments since the turn of the century. The adoption of improved methods of transportation, communication, investigation, and other operating procedures, and the utilization of improved administrative practices are essential to modern police administration. They require effective police organization and wise policy decisions by the police administrator. It is with these problems of organization, administration, and policy decisions that this volume is concerned.

POLICY DECISIONS TO BE MADE

The progressive police administrator, intent on improving his department, must select the best procedure from one or more alternatives in almost every field of police activity. The following are examples of decisions which he must make.

1. Should divisions of the force, organized to perform special tasks, relieve patrolmen on their beats of important responsibilities in the

investigation of crime, vice, juveniles, and accidents and the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations; or should the special unit serve (a) as a staff agency to plan and control police activities in its field and (b) as a line unit to perform only those tasks that interfere with regular patrol and those tasks that it can accomplish substantially better than the patrolman on his beat?

2. Should the police make a determined effort to eradicate delinquency-inducing influences and to help maladjusted individuals overcome their difficulties, utilizing all community resources for this purpose; or should they concentrate on the apprehension of criminals and leave the prevention of criminality to other agencies?

3. Should special divisions be set up for vice and juvenile-crime control, or should these tasks be assigned to the detective division?

4. Should the duties of each division be defined in exact terms, as, for example, the types of cases to be investigated and the extent of the investigation to be made by patrolmen, before the case is referred to a special division; or should responsibilities be placed in broad, general terms?

5. Should the patrolman on his beat make a preliminary investigation of crimes and accidents, or should this be conducted by special divisions, each of which is exclusively responsible for all investigations in its field?

6. Should the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations be primarily the responsibility of motorized patrolmen on their beats, or should such enforcement be the responsibility of the traffic division?

7. Should patrolmen be held accountable for vice conditions on their beats, or should this be the exclusive responsibility of a vice division?

8. Should physical evidence be utilized in crime investigation, or should reliance be placed exclusively on facts obtained by interviewing people?

9. Who should be made responsible for searching for physical evidence at the scene of a crime—the patrolman on the beat? the detective assigned to the case? the identification officer? the criminalist? or specially trained and suitably equipped officers?

10. Should the officer assigned to search crime scenes for physical evidence make a similar search at the scene of accidents, or should accident investigation be made the exclusive responsibility of the traffic division?

11. Should records be centralized and made the responsibility of a central records division, or should they be decentralized among the operating units?

12. Should identification records be consolidated with other police

records, or should they be kept separate, the responsibility of some unit other than the records division?

13. Should the dispatcher be assigned to the central complaint bureau in the records division, or should he be assigned to an operating division?

14. Should prisoners be fingerprinted and photographed in the jail area by the custodial officers, or should these tasks be performed outside the jail area by the identification officers?

15. How often should the distribution of man power among the several functional units and platoons and the shift arrangement be reexamined to ascertain whether they conform to need?

16. Should a different beat organization be established for each shift, or is it preferable to use the same beats for all shifts?

17. Should the patrol force be as completely motorized as possible, or should it be made up principally of foot patrolmen?

18. As a general rule, should one or two men be assigned to each patrol car, and should detectives work singly or in pairs?

19. Should patrol cars be conspicuously marked or should they be indistinguishable from private automobiles?

20. Should detectives be given specialized assignments, or should there be open assignments of cases, i.e., without regard to the class of crimes?

21. Should patrolmen be rotated monthly in their shift assignments, or should they have permanent platoon assignments?

22. Should a man be kept on one job indefinitely, or should frequent transfer be made from beat to beat, shift to shift, and job to job?

23. Should standard procedures be planned to deal with specific crime situations (e.g., the robbery of a bank) in order to assure the effective and safe deployment of officers and the efficient and satisfactory performance of other tasks; or should operating personnel develop their procedures for each situation as it arises?

24. Should the responsibility for over-all planning be centralized, or should it be divided among the top police officials?

25. Should the duties of each position be exactly defined, or are general statements preferable?

26. Should definite lines of control be established so that each officer may know to whom he is responsible and, in turn, who is answerable to him?

27. Should police personnel, matériel, operations, and conditions be subjected to a continuing and thorough inspection, or are periodic inspections adequate?

28. Should the integrity of the force and conditions in the community favorable to organized crime be investigated, or should the chief operate on the assumption that all is well?

EVALUATION OF POLICE PRACTICES

In making such policy decisions, the chief will need to examine critically the administrative practices and management not only of his own, but also of other police departments as well. He will be interested in their organization and operating procedures, their methods of selecting and training personnel, their equipment and the manner of its use. Since sound evaluation is vital to wise decisions, the chief will search for a measure of the relative merits of the alternative practices to guide his selection. Three possible methods of appraisal are apparent.

Extent of Use. The extent to which a procedure has been adopted by the police throughout the country may be considered evidence of its superiority. The prevailing practice, however, is not necessarily the best practice. A method that is best for one time or place may not be best for another. Changing social conditions, new inventions, and improved techniques may outmode practices. Superior methods are constantly being evolved, and police practices frequently have not kept pace with developments. Finally, a nation-wide survey will reveal the absence of any significant uniformity in police practices in cities taken as a whole or grouped by population size, geographical location, or relative police strength. The alert police administrator will not be willing to accept a practice merely because it is widely used, but will apply other and more valid tests.

Indexes of Efficiency. Measures of police effectiveness, such as crime and accident rates, the percentage of stolen property recovered, or cases cleared by arrest may be used in evaluating police practices. Their use for this purpose is limited, however, because these indexes are influenced by widely varying social factors over which the police exercise no control. Also, fair appraisals are difficult because the prevailing practices in American police departments are invariably a mixture of the good and the bad, and consequently the effectiveness of a superior procedure may be counterbalanced by the inefficiency of one or more inferior procedures, thus making the superior practice appear undesirable. A further hindrance to the use of objective measures lies in the fact that the results of operating methods and administrative procedures are not uniformly reflected in any one of the indexes. For example, it is difficult to isolate and measure the results of superior methods of personnel management, a superior organization plan, or superior equipment. Because of the many variables involved, comparisons between these indexes in different departments is of doubtful validity, and in any event must be made with great caution.

Objective indexes are valuable, however, in providing a measure of the increased efficiency resulting from a change in procedure within a single department, provided change is made in only one practice and the influence of the other factors remains nearly constant. Objective measures of efficiency thus reflect the experience of an individual department and consequently are useful in evaluating the results of controlled experiments designed to ascertain by trial the merit of a new procedure. If the experiences of departments that have tried new procedures were accurately recorded, data would be available to guide in the choice of superior procedures. Unfortunately, such data are available infrequently and in only a few fields of police activity.

Analysis and Deductive Reasoning. The third method of evaluation is that of analysis and deductive reasoning, *i.e.*, the application of general principles to the solution of an immediate problem. Police needs may be analyzed, and principles and procedures successfully used by others to meet similar needs in a comparable situation may be adapted to the local situation. For example, scientific developments in transportation, communications, and laboratory techniques have been adapted to police service in this manner. Organization principles and administrative practices successfully used in the armed forces, in industry, and in other public services, and psychological principles that have been profitably used by businessmen and public administrators in their relationships with people may also, with imagination, be applied to police service.

While an accurate pretrial appraisal of police practices may not invariably result from deductive reasoning, this process appears more reliable than judgment based on extent of use. Until many departments have recorded and compared their records before and after trial and have made adjustment for extraneous influences, it seems doubtful that much reliance should be placed on the objective indexes of individual departments. For today, therefore, the best guide in the selection and adaptation of procedures seems to be analysis and deductive reasoning; analysis of the results may provide proof of soundness of judgment as a guide to others confronted with a similar problem. The use of analysis and deductive reasoning, however, needs to be grounded on good judgment and a thorough understanding of police principles, practices, and administration, not limited to a single city.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

An examination of the organization of the armed forces, of industry, and of public agencies reveals some practices that seem to fill the need

for which they were designed. These practices may be considered fundamental and should be kept in mind by the chief in organizing his force in the manner described in the following chapters. They are listed below.

1. Tasks similar or related in purpose, process, method, or clientele are grouped together in one or more units under the control of a single person. In order to facilitate their assignment, these tasks are divided according to (a) the time and (b) the place of their performance and (c) the level of authority needed in their accomplishment.
2. Lines of demarcation between the units are clearly drawn by a precise definition of duties which are made known to all members so that responsibility may be placed exactly. Such definition avoids duplication in execution, and neglect resulting from an unassigned duty.
3. Channels are established through which information flows up and down and through which authority is delegated. These lines of control permit the delegation of authority, the placing of responsibility, the supervision of operations, and the coordination of effort; the individuals and groups are thus tied together into a unified force susceptible of direction and control. The lines of control must be clearly defined and well understood by all members so that each may know to whom he is responsible and who, in turn, is responsible to him.
4. Each individual, unit, and situation must be under the immediate control of one, and only one, person, thus achieving the principle of unity of command and avoiding the friction that results from duplication of direction and supervision.
5. No more units or persons are placed under the direct control of one man than he is able to manage.
6. Each task is made the unmistakable duty of someone; responsibility for planning, execution, and control (implemented by inspection) is definitely placed on designated persons.
7. Supervision is provided of each person at the level of execution regardless of the hour or place.
8. Each assignment of responsibility carries with it commensurate authority to fulfill the responsibility.
9. Persons to whom authority is delegated are invariably held accountable for its use.

Integration through Suitable Articulation of the Parts. The reason a force is organized is to enable its members to attain their police objectives more readily and effectively. This fact must not be lost sight of in planning the organization structure and in its administration. To the extent that its structure facilitates police operations, the organization

is justified. To the extent that the structure impedes the work of the members, it fails to accomplish the purpose of organization. When the force operates effectively as a unit, it is well organized.

In the organization of a police force, the members are grouped into units for the performance of tasks that are logically divided for assignment according to their nature and the time and place of their performance. Integration of the component units is dependent on their inter-relationships, and these must conform to the other administrative principles. The relationships are established by definition of the duties of each unit. Each component member and organizational unit is tied into the whole organization by clearly defined lines of control. The principle of unity of command is adhered to, and reasonable limits are placed on spans of control. Responsibility is unmistakably placed, and commensurate authority is delegated. Supervision is assured, and all are held to account for their use of authority.

It may appear in practice that the application of some of the administrative principles hinders rather than helps the performance of police tasks. Adherence to officially established lines of authority seems to cause needless delay; the process of control seems to be unduly cumbersome and involved. Desire to get on with the job tempts cutting across the lines of control in violation of the principle of unity of command. Friction results when this is done. The same desire tempts the executive to undertake an unreasonable span of control in order to provide a more direct access to those engaged in the performance of a task.

The administrative principles, which are sound, are intended to facilitate the operation of the force, not to hamper it. Performance hindered by their application is not proof of their invalidity; it is only evidence of an improper articulation of the organizational units.

The organization structure by itself, because it is a static, mechanical device lacking intelligent discretion, will not assist the force to deal effectively with live and constantly changing situations. In order to do so, the organization must be alive and readily adaptable to any situation that confronts it. Its adaptability is influenced by the relationships that are established between the component units.

Relationships that are incapable of adjustment to meet changing conditions result in an inflexible organization in which adherence to administrative principles clearly hampers its operation. This situation tempts the members to disregard the principles on the ground that they are not sound. When this is done, the force operates without organization; its effectiveness is then dependent on the judgment and good will of its members.

Relationships are defined by departmental regulations and duty manuals. The relationships should avoid friction, delay, and other obstacles

to free and easy operation. The effectiveness of the force is thus facilitated. The relationships also must conform to the administrative principles.

The needed flexibility is obtained by creating relationships that make unnecessary the adherence to formal channels for supervision and control in ordinary routine operations. Staff command, supervision, and inspection provide the desired flexibility. Adaptability to meet emergency needs is provided by defining situations that automatically cause a shift in command. Deviations from rigid lines of control are thus possible without violation of the principles.

The next three chapters explain the relationships that must be established in binding together the organizational units so that the force may function as a well-integrated body in complete conformity with the principles.

Justifiable Variations in Organization Structure. It may appear that the application of these principles would result in identical organization structures for all police departments, or at least that identical organization (including interunit relationships) would be found in departments of comparable cities. Individual personnel differences and the general quality level of the personnel must be taken into account, however, in working out the organization structure, and these differences cause wide variations in structure. Individual differences must be given consideration, since the purpose of organization is to use the efforts of all members most effectively. The personality, interest, native ability, skill, and experience of the members of the department are important factors to be considered in making assignments to produce the best results.

The special qualifications of top members of the department have a greater influence on organization structure than do those of the rank and file. There are more positions at the lower levels of authority, and individual differences usually may be taken into account in making assignments. At the higher levels of authority, however, there are increasingly fewer positions, and thus less opportunity exists to make assignments in which the special qualifications of the individual may be used to best advantage. Consequently, changes in the organization of the force may at times be necessary because of the special qualifications or limitations of the available officers; but in making such organization changes, care needs to be taken not to violate sound principles of organization.

Variations in procedures sometimes necessitate further variations from a model organization. For example, the need for the close supervision of the dispatcher by an officer qualified by experience to make important decisions on the spur of the moment is lessened when the dispatcher's duties are defined by regulation and his tasks outlined in prepared broad-

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casts; he then may be more logically assigned to the records division than to an operating division. Differences in tasks assigned to the operating units also result in variations in the basic functional organization. For example, the assignment to the patrol division of basic responsibility for the preliminary investigation of crimes and accidents and for the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations will influence the organization and size of the three divisions involved in these activities.

TITLES OF ORGANIZATION UNITS AND RANK OF THEIR HEADS

The lack of uniformity in naming the functional, time, and place units in police departments results in confusion. The title words which follow represent common practice, are suitably descriptive, and consequently are used throughout this book.

IN DEPARTMENTS THAT HAVE NO DISTRICT STATIONS

Personnel units	Geographical units	Time units	Rank of head
Patrolman.....	Beat—route—post	One shift	Patrolman
Squad.....	Sector	One shift	Sergeant
Platoon.....	Entire jurisdiction	One shift	Lieutenant
Division.....	Entire jurisdiction	24 hours	Captain
Bureau.....	Headquarters	Varies	Varies
Section or office.....	Headquarters	Varies	Varies

IN DEPARTMENTS THAT HAVE DISTRICT STATIONS

Personnel units	Geographical units	Time units	Rank of head
Patrolman.....	Beat—route—post	One shift	Patrolman
Squad.....	Sector	One shift	Sergeant
Platoon.....	District	One shift	Lieutenant
Company.....	District	24 hours	Captain
Division.....	Entire jurisdiction	24 hours	Major *
Bureau.....	Headquarters	Varies	Varies
Section or office.....	Headquarters	Varies	Varies

* The title of "inspector" is used in this position in some departments; others fill the position with an "assistant chief."

Post. A post is a fixed point or location to which an officer is assigned for duty. It is the desk, office, or other place to which an officer is assigned at headquarters; it is also the location where a patrolman is assigned for field duty, such as (1) an intersection or crosswalk for traffic duty or (2) a spot or location for general guard duty, observation, and surveillance or for the apprehension of a person wanted for, or about to commit, a crime.

Route. A route is a length of street, or streets, designated for patrol purposes. A route is most frequently used for the assignment of traffic patrolmen, although sometimes it is used for the assignment of foot patrolmen.

Beat. A beat is an area (in contrast to a length of street) assigned for patrol purposes. It is almost invariably used for the assignment of foot patrol and of motorized patrol; it is also sometimes used for the assignment of motorized traffic officers instead of a route.

Sector. A sector is an area containing two or more beats, routes, or posts. The squad of officers assigned to a sector is headed by a sergeant.

District. The city may be divided into districts, each with its own police station out of which operates a district force, called a company, usually under the command of a district captain.

Division. Functional units, such as patrol, traffic, detective, records, and communications, and so on are called divisions. Divisions have jurisdiction-wide coverage. In departments having no district stations each division is commanded by a captain. The commanders of divisions decentralized among district stations have the rank of major, inspector, assistant chief, or supervising captain.

Platoon. The personnel of a division assigned to one shift or watch is known as a platoon. The platoon, ordinarily commanded by a lieutenant, may serve the entire city or a district thereof. It may be composed of several *squads* assigned to sectors of the city or the district. Divisions that have personnel on duty for more than one shift divide them into platoons on the basis of the hours of the day they are on duty, without regard to the number on duty or the rank of the supervising officer. This procedure facilitates making assignments.

Bureau and Section. The duties of some divisions call for additional specialization, and in consequence the personnel must be further classified according to their duties. Functional units within a division are called *bureaus*. Such designation is especially useful where a group is regularly assigned to tasks at a particular location, such as at a certain desk, counter, or office. If further specialization is needed within a bureau, the personnel may be divided into *sections* or *offices*.

Such extensive subdivision is found only in very large departments. In a large detective division the personnel may be divided among a number of bureaus to investigate certain classes of crimes. For example, there may be a homicide bureau, a robbery bureau, an auto-theft bureau, and so on. The traffic division may have an accident-investigation bureau and a traffic-engineering bureau. The records and communications division may have the following bureaus: central complaint, information, identification, records, statistics, and property.

Rank of Bureau Chief. While the rank of the officer in charge of a bureau is logically that of lieutenant, this officer is not invariably so designated because rank depends largely upon the size and responsibilities of the office. A bureau may have fewer members than a section and yet be called a bureau because it is an immediate subdivision of a division. Under such circumstances, if the rank of the head were higher than the rank of the section leader, it might be out of proportion to the responsibilities of the job. This problem may be solved by calling the unit a section, even though it is a subdivision of a division rather than of a bureau.

The principal reason for creating a bureau may be to designate a post or location in order to facilitate assignment and to direct persons more readily to the location. If this is the sole reason, the bureau may not have a head, although it may be a functional unit. An information bureau is an example.

POLICE TITLES AND RANK

The division of personnel according to the level of the authority they exercise creates the necessity of designating by title the rank or grade of authority. Greater uniformity in the use of police titles would avoid the confusion and embarrassment which result when police visitors bearing the same title as local officers have quite different duties and rank.³

Rank without Authority. Titles are not invariably bestowed on the basis of the actual authority exercised. In jurisdictions where salary scales are rigidly fixed according to rank, a salary commensurate with the responsibility and duties of the assignment in some instances may

³ In the many examples of the lack of uniformity in the use of police titles in this country, the most glaring discrepancy is found in the use of the title "inspector." In some departments, this title is given to officers who in other departments are titled "detectives." In the New York City Police Department an inspector is a top-ranking line officer, the chief inspector being immediately subordinate to a deputy commissioner; in the Milwaukee Police Department, the inspector is the assistant chief of police. In England, where the title "lieutenant" is not used in police service, the rank of inspector is next above that of sergeant.

be paid only by classifying an individual in a rank which usually carries with it a power of command not exercised in that individual's particular position. For example, a specialist, such as a police traffic engineer, a criminalist, or a lie-detector operator, may be given a higher rank than patrolman to ensure suitable compensation, even though the specialist may have no subordinate personnel.

Grades of Rank. Each rank may be divided into two or more grades frequently bearing pay differentials. The grade is usually determined by years of service (especially in the rank of patrolman), although the distinction sometimes is one of assignment, as, for example, when the title of captain is invariably given to the head of each functional division. When the head of each division has the rank of captain, each head has the advantages of equality with the others at staff conferences and in obtaining his share of personnel and matériel. The numerical strength and duties of the divisions vary, however; and since the heads should be paid in proportion to their responsibilities and the nature of their tasks, a salary differential must be provided among captains. The captains may usually be graded in the following descending order of responsibility: patrol, detective, traffic, juvenile-crime control, and vice.

Flexibility in Assignment to Key Positions. In departments where the classification of personnel is rigidly controlled by a central personnel agency, the police chief is denied freedom to assign his key personnel to positions for which they seem to him to be best suited. The problem has been solved in some cities by giving the heads of some units the title of director and permitting the police chief to fill these positions without regard to the rank of the person assigned. The director then sometimes receives higher remuneration than that designated for his civil service rank, and at the termination of his assignment as director, he reverts to his civil service salary. The desired conditions of flexibility in choice of key personnel and of remuneration in proportion to responsibility also may be attained in the case of captains by eliminating this civil service rank and granting to the chief the power to select his captains (with a suitable pay increment in each case in proportion to responsibilities and duties) from all those with the rank of lieutenant and to return them to service as lieutenants when in his judgment such action is desirable. This procedure provides him desirable flexibility in shifting key personnel to positions where their interest and ability are used to best advantage and where their deficiencies are least bothersome. In some departments similar flexibility is provided by the assignment of patrolmen and sergeants to detective service; in some instances a pay differential is secured by an expense allowance during the period of assignment.

Within some ranks there is further division by assignment which does not alter the grade or rank. For example, patrolmen may be jailers or wagon drivers, or they may be assigned to other tasks dissimilar to the usual duties of a patrolman.

Order of Rank. The relative level of authority or rank represented by each title should be clearly established by department regulations. The following organization of rank is found in many departments and is inserted here to clarify the use of these titles in this book. Titles on the same line are considered of equal rank.

Chief of police

Assistant chiefs (ranked according to grade)

Major (a title used in some departments with district stations)

Captains (ranked according to grade)

Lieutenants

Sergeants (patrol and desk⁴)—dispatchers

Detectives

Patrolmen—policewomen (ranked according to grade)

Matrons

Clerks and other civilian employees

OTHER TERMINOLOGY

The following additional definitions are provided to avoid misunderstanding in the use of these terms.

Member is a term applied to all persons on the police department payroll, including both officers and civilian employees.

Civilian employees are members who have not taken the oath of office and are not authorized to make arrests.

Officers are those members of the force who have taken the oath of office, are authorized to make arrests, and are charged with law-enforcement responsibilities. The term is applied without regard to sex, rank, division, or duty.

Superior officer is one having supervisory responsibilities, either temporarily or permanently, over officers of lower rank.

Commanding officer is a superior officer having rank, either temporarily or permanently, higher than that of sergeant.

Ranking officer is the officer having the highest rank or grade. Officers of the same grade should rank according to the date of their appointment to that grade, unless otherwise ordered by the chief of police. When

⁴ The patrol sergeant should be superior to the desk sergeant in small departments having no platoon lieutenant (see p. 52).

two or more officers are appointed to the same grade on the same date, they should rank in the order of their appointment. When two or more officers are on duty together, the officer of the highest rank is in command and should be held responsible. For a special detail and for a specific period, an officer may be designated by the commanding officer to take command without regard to rank. The beat officer is the ranking patrolman when others are dispatched to his beat.

Length of service is from the date on which the oath of office was last administered. Previous service may be added.

On duty—an officer is on duty during the period when he is actively engaged in the performance of his duties.

Off duty—an officer is off duty during the rest period when he is free from specified routine duties.

Special duty is police service the nature of which requires that the officer be excused from the performance of his regular duties.

Leave of absence is an extended period during which an officer is excused from active duty and during which time he receives no pay.

Sick leave is the period during which an officer is excused from active duty by reason of illness or injury.

Suspension is the act of temporarily denying an officer the privilege of performing his police duties in consequence of dereliction or other violation of department regulations. Suspension is either the first step in the disciplinary process or the penalty assessed. The suspended officer ordinarily does not receive pay during the period of his suspension. The authority to suspend should be defined in department regulations.

Department regulations are rules established to control the conduct of the members of the force. At its inception, a regulation should be made effective by general order; it should be incorporated into the department regulations on their first revision. Department regulations may be embodied into the duty manual or published as a separate volume.

Duty manual—the department duty manual describes procedures and defines the duties of officers assigned to specified posts or positions. It may be a single volume, or separate manuals may be prepared for each branch of the service. Duty manuals and changes in them should be made effective by general order; the changes should be incorporated into the first revision of the duty manual.

Order—an order is an instruction given by a ranking officer to a subordinate.

General orders are permanent orders issued by the chief of police not relating to a specific circumstance or situation but affecting the entire department. With the exception of those relating to promotions and

demotions, general orders should remain active only until they have been incorporated into department regulations or duty manuals.

Special orders are those issued by the chief of police relating to some specific circumstance or situation, usually of a temporary nature, that ordinarily does not affect the entire department.

Through official channels means through the hands of the superior officers in the chain of command.

Report—a report is always a written communication unless otherwise specified. Verbal reports should be confirmed by written communications before officers rendering them report off duty.

Chapter 2

THE POLICE ORGANIZATION

An understanding of the processes involved in the accomplishment of police tasks is essential to the development and operation of a suitable organization of the force. Three processes—planning the operation, doing the job, and controlling the results—are vital to the attainment of any objective or the performance of any task. A sound organization facilitates these processes.

The problem of organization is considered primarily at the lowest level of authority—the level of execution—on the following pages. Organization for command and for planning and control is treated in greater detail in Chaps. 3 and 4.

Purpose of Organization. The police force must be organized in a manner to assure the most effective direction, coordination, and control of its members in the accomplishment of the police purpose. The best results are achieved when all members work to the best of their ability, consciously conforming to the structure of the organization but not so conscious of it as to retard the free movement of ideas and efforts up and down and sideways.

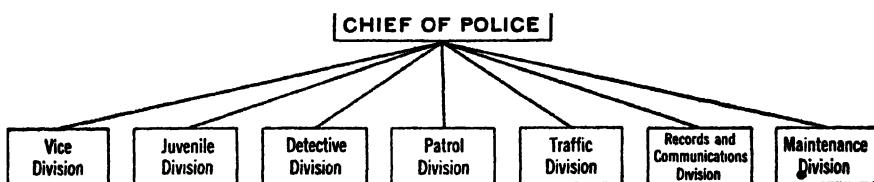
For the attainment of police objectives the police chief has the help of a number of men. In order that objectives may be achieved, it is essential that all tasks should be specifically assigned and that each officer should know his particular duties and responsibilities. The regular assignment of similar or related duties to one man or the same group of men is advantageous, and police tasks should be arranged so that similar or related ones may be regularly assigned to the same personnel group.

Duties may be considered similar or related on the basis of (1) their purpose (to control traffic, vice, and juvenile crime are examples), (2) their method (for example, patrol, investigation, clerical, laboratory, and maintenance duties employ distinctly different methods), and (3) their clientele, *i.e.*, the people served or worked with (the juvenile division works primarily with children, the traffic division with motorists and pedestrians; the vice division is concerned with gamblers, prostitutes, and narcotics peddlers). Each of these bases is used in police organization, and this division of work is called specialization. Police tasks also are

classified according to the time of the day when they are performed and according to the place where they are located. They are also divided according to the level of authority needed in their accomplishment.

The Organization Structure. The efforts of the members are best coordinated and most effectively directed toward the accomplishment of the police purpose when the force is organized to facilitate the assignment and performance of tasks on the basis of type of duties and of the time and place of performance.

1. The force is organized primarily according to the nature of the tasks to be performed, *i.e.*, it is divided into groups so that similar or



related duties may be assigned to each. For example, most members will be assigned to patrol duties, but some may be assigned to traffic control, others to crime investigations, and so on, as shown in Chart I. Factors that should be considered in ascertaining the need and desirability of these functional divisions are discussed at a later point in this chapter.

2. The functional units are divided into shifts or platoons according to the time of day when the members are to work, as shown by the solid lines in Chart II.¹

3. A territorial distribution of the platoon force, accomplished by assigning patrolmen to beats, is necessary to facilitate the assignment, direction, and control of the officers and to assure suitable patrol service at every point within the jurisdiction.² The territorial distribution of a platoon is shown by broken lines in Chart II.

Patrolmen on street duty are usually under the supervision of a patrol sergeant. When the number of patrolmen is great, it may be desirable

¹ The determination of the most advantageous shift hours and the proportionate need for man power on each platoon in the patrol division is explained on p. 108 and also in the Appendix.

² The determination of boundaries to assure that the need for patrol service in each beat is approximately equal is discussed on p. 110 and in the Appendix.



to divide them into squads assigned to specific sectors of the jurisdiction, with a sergeant in charge of each squad.

A large city is divided into geographical districts and the patrol force apportioned among them; the organization of the force then reflects the

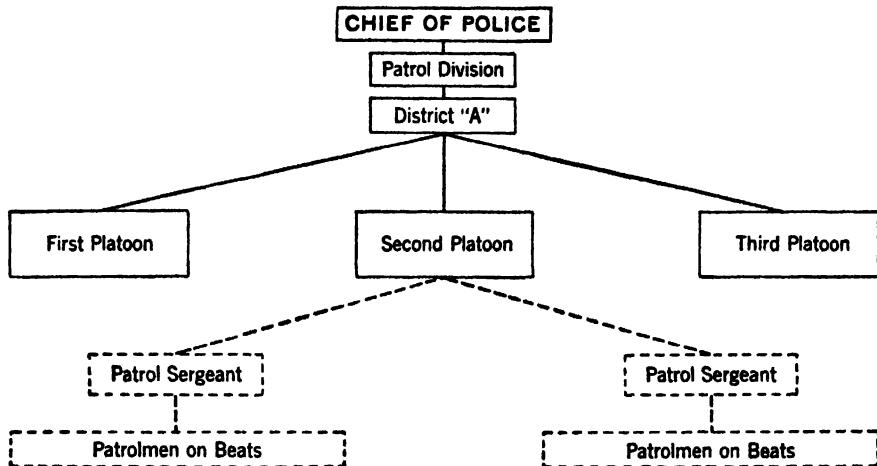


CHART II. Distribution of patrol force among the three shifts (division according to the time of day). The territorial organization of a platoon is shown by broken lines.

organization of the territory, as shown in Chart III. In some departments personnel engaged in one or more of the specialized tasks (crime investigation and traffic, vice, and juvenile-crime control) are appor-

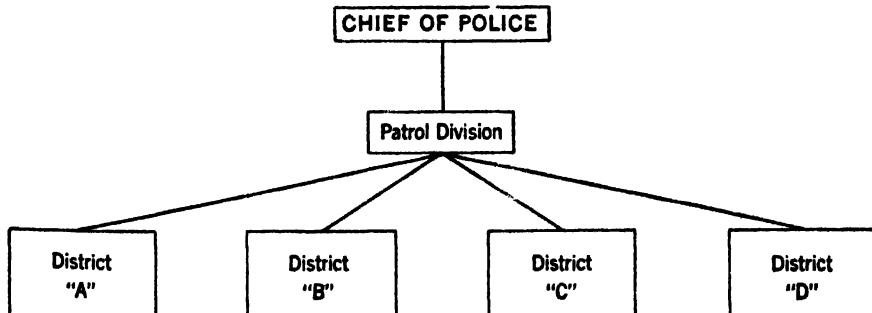


CHART III. Territorial organization of a large patrol force (division according to place).

tioned among the several districts, with their control vested in the district commanders; in others the head of each functional unit retains direct control over all personnel performing tasks in his field, even

though they may be physically decentralized by being housed in district stations.³

4. The force is also divided according to level of authority; i.e., there will be some patrolmen, some sergeants, some lieutenants, and so on, as illustrated in Chart IV. Vertical combinations of superior officers, with each rank at a different level of authority from any other, form channels through which operations may be directed and controlled. These chains of command, or lines of direct control, enable the delegation of authority and the placing of responsibility; supervision is thus assured.

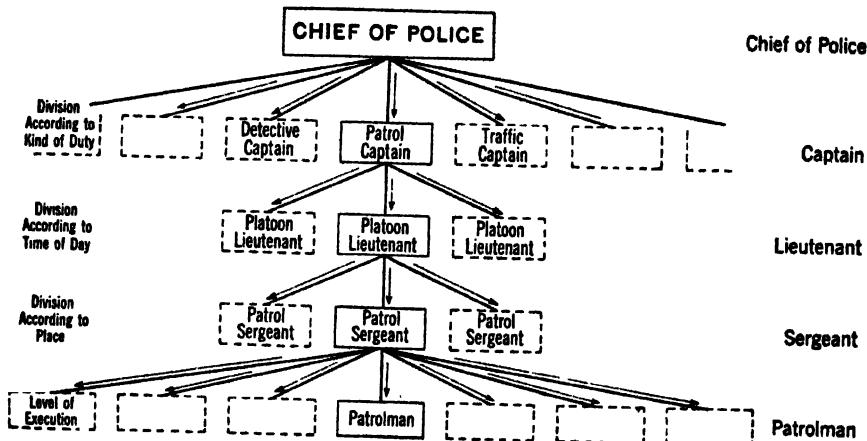


CHART IV. The lines of direct control showing division according to level of authority.

and coordination effected. As previously stated, problems relating to organization for command and control are dealt with in subsequent chapters.

ANALYSIS OF POLICE FUNCTIONS

Police duties must be analyzed so that similar or related tasks may be grouped together and the force divided into corresponding units for assignment purposes. The tasks may be classified as *line*, *auxiliary*, and *administrative*.

Line Functions. Operations that a police department is primarily created to perform are called primary, line, or operational duties. By their accomplishment the fundamental police purpose is fulfilled. These tasks may be grouped according to their immediate purpose.

Patrol—to repress criminal activity, regulate conduct, and perform a number of services to the public.

³ The relationships between the heads of specialized units and the district commanders in the exercise of authority are discussed in Chap. 18.

Crime investigation—to apprehend criminals, recover stolen property, and gather and prepare evidence for the prosecution of criminals.

Traffic control—to prevent accidents and congestion.

Vice control—to eliminate commercialized vice and safeguard the morals of the community.

Juvenile-crime control—to prevent the development of delinquent tendencies in children and to aid in the correction of such tendencies when they do develop.

Need for Special Operating Units. Factors to be considered in establishing the responsibilities of the patrol force and the relationships between it and the special units are discussed in considerable detail in the chapters devoted to these activities (Chaps. 5 to 12, inclusive). The specialization-determining factors, listed in a later section of this chapter, will guide in the organization of the force for the performance of the primary police tasks. The size of the department is also an important influence on the need for any specialization. Detective and traffic divisions are needed in fairly small departments, but vice and juvenile-crime control units of more than one man usually are not created in departments of fewer than 50 men. Departments of more than 100 men should have a separate division for each of the primary police tasks, i.e., patrol, traffic, detective, vice, and juvenile.

In creating functional units for the performance of the primary police tasks, the chief must bear the following facts in mind: (1) The patrol force is the backbone of the department, the field army which is responsible for the basic police services; (2) special units are justified only when performance is definitely improved thereby; (3) the principal purpose of the special unit is to assist the patrol force in the field of special interest and to undertake tasks that it is able to perform substantially better than the unspecialized patrol force; (4) special units should not be used to relieve the patrol force of all responsibility in the field of the special activity (see page 86).

The special units must not be watertight compartments with no relationship to the remainder of the department. A special division does not have exclusive jurisdiction in the performance of its principal function; neither is it completely relieved of tasks that do not relate specifically to its purpose. This is so because of the nature of police work; violations of every kind usually must receive immediate attention when observed by an officer, regardless of the unit to which he is attached. An improved service usually results when all members of the department have some responsibility in the accomplishment of all primary police tasks.

Auxiliary Functions. Services to the operating or line officers that aid them in the performance of their duties are called auxiliary, secondary,

or service functions. While police departments are not created to provide auxiliary services, their performance assists in the accomplishment of the police purpose. Auxiliary functions also may be grouped according to their purpose.

Records tasks—to record, classify, index, file, and tabulate facts relating to crime, criminals, and other police matters.

Communications tasks—to receive and transmit police information and orders, using the telephone, teletype, radio, and other communications devices.

Police laboratory duties—to identify or establish other facts relating to physical evidence by examining it scientifically.

Jail duties—to provide suitable custodial care of prisoners. (Sound argument also exists for considering jail duties a primary police task.)

Property management—to care for department-owned property and property temporarily in police custody.

Maintenance—to service, repair, and maintain in good order police buildings, other property, such equipment as motor vehicles and communications, and traffic signs, signals, and markings.

Need for Separate Service Units. The need for separate divisions for the performance of each of the auxiliary services is influenced by the size of the department and the desirability of combining some closely related tasks for assignment to one division. For example, there are sound reasons for making records, communications, and property control the combined responsibility of the records division and for keeping the laboratory an independent unit (see Chaps. 14 and 15). Maintenance should be a separate division, except in small departments where it may be a responsibility of the head of some other division. It is sometimes found desirable to have some or all police maintenance tasks performed by central agencies in the municipal government that are designed to serve all operating departments.

Administrative Functions. The administrative function includes the tasks of management, which facilitate and make possible the effective accomplishment of the other two, *i.e.*, operations (primary functions) and services (auxiliary functions). The principal task of the chief is to see that the resources of his department are so directed that the objectives—preservation of the peace, protection of life and property, and enforcement of law—are achieved economically and effectively. Success depends on the performance of administrative duties;⁴ some should

⁴ Luther Gulick lists the administrative duties as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting; from the initial letters of these words he has coined the word "posdeorb." Henri Fayol lists the administrative

be kept within the office of the chief, or closely tied to it, while others may be freely assigned to operating and service units.

Administrative duties may be divided conveniently into (1) operational administrative tasks that are concerned with the immediate direction of the resources of the department toward the accomplishment of the primary police objectives and (2) duties of staffing the organization with qualified personnel and equipping it to do the job.

Operational Administrative Duties. The operational administrative duties arise from the necessity of seeing that each component task in the accomplishment of the police purpose is performed. The force must be organized, specific objectives established, operations planned, procedures outlined, plans placed in operation, and controls exercised if the chief is to see that the job is done. The primary administrative processes, therefore, are planning, directing, and controlling; the chief must organize, deputize, and supervise.

Managerial Duties. A police department must have sound management if it is to operate effectively. Managerial needs are present in every organization--the undertaking must be financed, personnel and matériel must be provided and wisely used, and personnel must be prepared for their tasks. Budgetary appropriations must likewise be obtained for the police department. Specifications for both men and equipment must be prescribed if suitable resources are to be secured. The best man must be selected for appointment and promotion, regardless of which agencies are involved in the processes; discipline must be applied fairly but strictly, regardless of obstacles; the unfit must be eliminated; recruit and in-service training must be provided if the force is to work effectively. Officers must be rated according to value to the service on the basis of performance and ability if promotions and assignments are to be made wisely. Provision must also be made for their welfare. Morale-destroying influencees must be discovered and eliminated, and relationships between superior and subordinate officers must be established that will build department morale. Satisfactory public relations must also be established if department objectives are to be attained.

Need for Administrative Units. The need for separate units for the administrative tasks is influenced by the size of the department and the desirability for direct access to the chief. Personnel administration and public relations are so closely related as to justify consolidation in some instances. One or more inspectors creates the inspection unit; to it may

be added the over-all planning described in Chap. 4. The intelligence unit, also discussed in that chapter, merits independent status.

Assignment of Auxiliary and Administrative Duties. Some auxiliary services and administrative duties may, in some circumstances, be combined into a single unit or may be assigned to an existing division whose principal duties are related in some way to the extraneous task assigned. For example, in small departments, budget and accounts may be assigned to the records division. Again, since a jail division is not usually justified except in departments of several hundred men, in smaller departments jail duties may be assigned to the patrol division or to the records division.⁶

Decisions on such assignments are based on administrative judgments as to which division will perform the task most effectively and economically. Consideration must be given not only to the relationship of the extraneous task to the principal duty of the division but also to variations in the interest and competence of personnel.

Administrative vs. Staff Duties. As used in this book, the terms *staff duties* and *administrative duties* are not synonymous. Staff duties encompass only those duties performed by a staff officer who, in contrast to a line officer, exercises no direct authority (authority in his own right) over operating or line personnel. The line officer, however, may perform staff duties, and when he does so, he acts in the capacity of a staff officer. The tasks of the personnel officer, the training officer, the follow-up officer, and the dispatcher, when he is not the officer in direct command, are examples of staff duties. The relationships between staff and line officers are discussed later.⁶

SPECIALIZATION IN POLICE SERVICE

Specialization is accomplished by the division of the force into separate units, each to perform one or more of the primary, auxiliary, or administrative duties of the department. The degree of specialization is determined by the number of special divisions created and by the extent to which each has exclusive responsibility for the performance of tasks within the special field. A special unit need not be created for the performance of each group of distinctive tasks, and even though it is, most of the duties in the special field may be performed by the patrol division. For example, in spite of the creation of a traffic division, most street-traffic duties may be performed by motorized beat patrolmen.

Arguments favoring the patrol-division performance of these duties are found in Chap. 15.

See Chaps. 3, 4, and 13.

Similarly, a detective division may be established, but much of the work of investigating crimes may be performed by beat officers.

Decisions relating to specialization are extremely important in police administration and greatly affect the operation of the department. Specialization affects the relationships of the members in their performance of police tasks; it also complicates direction, coordination, and control. Many of the significant variations in police organization and operating methods in this country are traceable to diverse decisions in respect to the degree of specialization. For example, the centralization of police operations is somewhat in proportion to the extent of specialization, because the specialist has a strong impulse to retain complete control of all operations in his field and to oppose the delegation of authority for their performance to a unit having general police responsibilities. He feels that no one else is as competent as he to perform these special tasks.

The Extent of Specialization in American Police Departments. The degree of specialization in any branch of service is indicated to some extent by the proportion of man power assigned exclusively to tasks in that division. As the proportion of the force assigned to specialized activities increases, the proportion remaining for general patrol necessarily must decrease. Consequently the amount of specialization is reflected in the diminished proportion of the force devoted to general patrol.⁷

Development of Specialization. When police services were first established in this country, all tasks were performed by men on patrol. Crime investigation and rudimentary forms of traffic and vice control were performed by the watch which was created primarily for the purpose of preserving the peace and protecting life and property by repressive patrol.⁸

The modern department with its high degree of specialization evolved from this simple organization. The need for specialization in crime investigation gradually became apparent, and detective divisions were created for this purpose in the larger departments.⁹ The proportion of the force devoted exclusively to crime investigation was relatively small at the beginning, but the number of men assigned to this task had greatly increased by the turn of the century. Demands were already being made for other specialized activities, but the trend toward specialization did not become especially pronounced until later with the coming of the automobile, when the problem of traffic control became increasingly acute. Specialization in traffic control has been followed by specialization in delinquency prevention; both were preceded and accompanied by specialization in vice control.

Specialization in the Small Department. In the small department, the patrolman must be a Jack of all police trades. He must patrol his beat, be alert for conditions that may jeopardize the comfort, safety, and welfare of the people, and take action to correct improper conditions. He must exert such influence on young people as will aid in their development into worth-while citizens. He must repress the criminal activity of those so inclined, and when crimes are committed, he must personally conduct an investigation and seek to apprehend the criminals, recover stolen property, and aid in the preparation of the case for court. Further, he must concern himself with the moral welfare of the people, protecting them from unwholesome influences and apprehending and prosecuting those who transgress. He must control the conduct of citizens—inform them of regulations, warn them of violations, and arrest those who persist in transgressions; he must also regulate vehicular and pedestrian traffic in order to prevent accidents and congestion. He must provide innumerable services to the public, giving information, assistance,

officers, who also had a particular eye after the day men; 40 day officers on patrol on beats throughout the city, and about 20 night patrol officers to catch thieves, together with five detectives." Entirely independent of this force was the captain of the watch, with "about 225 watchmen detailed exclusively for night duty, the beats extending entirely over the city and each man on his beat one half the night." (Edward H. Savage, *Boston Watch and Police*, p. 90. J. E. Farwell and Company, Boston, 1865.) The metropolitan police force created in London, England, by Sir Robert Peel in 1828 provided a day and night patrol, the jurisdiction being divided into beats and each officer devoting his attention exclusively to patrolling his district. The criminal investigation division was not created until 14 years later. (W. L. M. Lee, *History of the English Police*, Methuen & Co., Ltd., London, 1901.)

⁹ For example, the Boston Police Department, created in 1854, consisted of about 250 men, of whom 6 were attached to the chief's office and 5 were detectives. (Savage, op. cit., p. 94.)

and comfort to those in distress. This is the service provided by the policeman in a small town today, service similar to but much more extensive than was given by his predecessor, the night watch, a hundred years ago.

Specialization Grows with the Growth of the Department. The development of specialization in the police department of a rapidly growing city today is similar to the gradual historical development of specialization that occurred in the modernization of police organization. The chief investigates crime in the small department, but as the amount of work increases, one or more officers may spend part or full time at this task. The increased number of police and the greater amount of work to be done in larger departments result in still further specialization in those fields of police activity where the importance and nature of the task seem to require special attention, ability, and training.

Lack of Uniformity in Specialization. Wide variations in the proportion of the force devoted to patrol and to the special branches of the service are found among cities of every population group, in every geographical division of the country, and in departments in both the upper and lower brackets of personnel strength.¹⁰

Equally pronounced variations are to be found in the proportional strength of such special branches of the service as detective, traffic, vice, juvenile-crime control, and communications and records. Similar variations are apparent in the number of special divisions created in departments throughout the country. It does not seem likely that varied conditions within the individual communities justify such wide variations in practice; and neither does it seem likely that such widely varying practices can be equally effective--some must be better than others. An examination of police practices indicates that specialization has not always been soundly based.

Determining the Need for Specialization. Sound decisions on the need, nature, and degree of specialization are vital to the creation of an effective organization. Careful consideration should be given to the question of specialization, and the advantages should be weighed against the disadvantages before making a decision.

The Advantages of Specialization. In any organization, civilian or military, business or government, there are definite advantages to be obtained by specialization, *i.e.*, the assignment of particular tasks to special units or individuals in the organization. The major advantages of specialization are listed below.

Responsibility Placed. Through specialization, responsibility for the performance of a task is placed on a specific individual or unit of an organization. Definite fixing of responsibility is the first rule to assure effective operation.

Experts Developed. Personnel may be selected for particular tasks on the basis of special ability and training, and a high degree of skill may be developed through constant repetition of the task. The narrowed field of interest and attention makes possible the development of the skill and ability of the expert.

Training Improved. Persons assigned to a specialized field may be given more intensive training than would be feasible for the entire force, and the narrowed field of interest also promotes study and research by individual members.

Esprit de Corps Promoted. A small group which is made responsible for the performance of a specific task tends to form a cohesive unit with a high morale and pride in its accomplishments. If members of the special unit are selected on the basis of special ability, and through training, repetition, and attention to a restricted field, become highly skilled, they invariably develop enthusiasm and a strong *esprit de corps*.

Special Police Interest Stimulated. Because of their definite responsibility, specialized personnel develop a proprietary interest in department operations that relate to their field. Their consequent concern causes them to participate actively in department operations and to press for authority, personnel, and matériel to meet their needs. The demand by special units for adequate facilities is desirable so long as it does not result in a disproportionate allocation of the resources of the department.

Public Interest Aroused. Similarly, specialized units arouse and organize public interest and support of police activities. Within limits, such public support is desirable; it aids in securing necessary funds for needed improvements or added police strength.

The Disadvantages of Specialization. The evils of specialization in some cases, however, may outweigh the advantages. If specialization is carried to excess, it may seriously injure departmental operations. The following disadvantages may result from specialization;

Usefulness Limited. Every police matter referred to an officer deserves his immediate attention and usually receives it when he is un-

questionably responsible for its performance. As a department becomes more specialized, however, many police matters can no longer be directly and promptly disposed of by the officer immediately concerned but must be referred to certain individuals and units in the organization for decision and action. Responsibility is thus divided between the patrol officer and the specialist. The specialist sometimes hesitates to take action outside his own field because his skill and ability in other activities are usually not so great. Further, specialization frequently affords both the specialist and the nonspecialist a convenient excuse for not undertaking a task that may involve some inconvenience, time, and energy.

General Police Interest Restricted. Participation in a special activity by all members of the department creates among them an interest that is lost when the operation is performed exclusively by the specialists. For example, when patrolmen have no responsibility in vice, traffic, and juvenile-crime control, they are not likely to have much interest in these primary police tasks.

Tasks of Command Made Difficult. Specialization necessitates giving certain responsibility and delegating concomitant authority to each special unit and limiting the authority delegated to all other units. For this reason, the tasks of coordination, supervision, and control become more complicated. Unity of command is also jeopardized by bringing into conflict individuals not under a common leadership in operations such as serious crimes, severe explosions, fires, and other catastrophes that necessitate the services of specialists and other members of the force, regardless of the division to which they may be regularly assigned. As specialization is increased, interrelationships multiply alarmingly; these interrelationships are areas of potential conflict and friction that greatly increase the problem of integration.

Other Administrative Problems Created. The swivel-chair executives and private offices that frequently accompany specialization present other problems. The influence of the specialist tends to grow out of proportion to his responsibility. He exerts every effort to establish his position more firmly and to enhance its importance. Unless his demands for more personnel, equipment, office space, and records facilities are checked, they may result in a department of generals with their aides, and no policemen will be left to do the work. Specialization promotes further specialization. The specialized unit frequently urges the necessity of an independent records system and of a specialized patrol superimposed on the regular patrol. The specialists may also develop their own pressure groups in the community, and these groups may embarrass rather than aid the administration.

Development of a Well-rounded Police Program Hampered. The conditions just described promote lopsided programs with unjustified emphases on special fields of police work. This results when the personality and influence of the specialist, rather than the need for service, are the determining factors.

Territorial Coverage Diminished. Specialization invariably results in a less intensive general patrol. If police services are divided on the basis of function between two officers, each must cover approximately twice the area required when all services are performed by each.

Determining Factors. The evils as well as the benefits of specialization must be considered in reaching a decision concerning the extent to which any branch of police service should be specialized. The question is one largely of the degree of specialization to be adopted. A fixed stand for or against specialization under all circumstances would be highly arbitrary. Some of the factors to be considered are discussed in the succeeding paragraphs.

The Quality of Personnel. The higher the quality of police personnel, as determined by selection and training, the less the need for specialization; the greater range of ability of competent officers makes it possible for them to perform successfully a greater variety of tasks. On the other hand, the range of tasks which may be assigned to officers of lesser ability and inferior training is substantially less.

The Need for Special Skill and Ability. Certain police tasks require special skills and abilities that can be obtained only through specialization. For example, the operation of a camera, lie detector, and devices for chemically testing the degree of intoxication, as well as the performance of laboratory tasks, require highly developed skills. For certain types of crime investigation that require special skill and ability, specialization within the detective division is usually desirable.

The Importance of the Job. Special units are frequently established because a particular police activity is regarded as extremely important, and it is desired to give special attention to it. The importance of a task is ascertained (1) by the need, as indicated by such factors as the crime and accident rate, the juvenile-crime index, vice conditions, or the per cent of crimes cleared by arrest and property recovered; and (2) by the demand for a particular service. The demand may reflect the actual need for the service or it may be artificially stimulated by pressure groups, public opinion, or by police officials or higher authority; it is sometimes without regard to actual need.

The Amount of Work to Be Done. An amount of work, concentrated in time and place, sufficient to occupy the full time of one man may justify specialization, even though it may not be justified on any other

score. An example is the car marker who devotes full time to the enforcement of time-limit parking regulations. The task is not especially important and does not require special skill and ability, but the volume of work justifies specialization.

Need for Readily Available Services. Specialization may be justified to make certain services readily available, even though there may not be a sufficient amount of work to occupy the full time of one man. For example, in a small department, the identification officer or the laboratory technician frequently provides 24-hour service in photographing crime scenes and searching them for physical evidence. As the amount of work increases, this arrangement becomes unsatisfactory, because the officer sacrifices an undue portion of his off-duty time. Also, investigation is sometimes impaired because others hesitate to infringe on his off-duty time. Under these circumstances there is need for a special investigator on each shift skilled in photographing crime scenes and searching for, recording, preserving, and transporting physical evidence to the police laboratory, even though his full time is not devoted to these duties. The remainder of his time may be spent in patrolling troubled areas where an above-the-ordinary concentration of police attention is desirable.¹¹

Intermittent Emergency Needs. Even in the absence of a suitable normal need (amount of work) the creation of a special unit may be justified when such a unit is used as an emergency reserve to meet irregular, intermittent needs. For example, the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations may be the responsibility of the patrol division, thus making unnecessary an enforcement squad for this purpose in the traffic division. Unusual needs for traffic control created by parades, athletic events, and other public functions, however, require the intermittent attention of a number of traffic officers. Intermittent need created by unusual criminal activity also requires special details of officers. The irregularity of these needs makes unnecessary the constant use of a force to meet them. Without a unit for this purpose, however, officers either must be withdrawn from their regular beats, which is unwise, or must work overtime, which is also undesirable. These irregular needs, therefore, may justify the creation of a traffic squad. When not on special assignments, this squad is available for regular traffic patrol, supplementing the selective enforcement of moving-traffic regulations by the patrol division (see also Chaps. 8 and 25).

Need for Maintaining Skill. There may be an insufficient amount of work for all members to maintain skill through performance, thus justi-

fying specialization so that suitable skill may be maintained by one or a small number of men. Photographic work is an example. All officers may be competent in learning to take photographs of crime and accident scenes and of physical evidence under varying conditions of light, but there is insufficient photographic work to keep each man in practice. Consequently there is need for one or more specialists in these and related tasks.

Need for Planning and Control. The amount of planning necessary in any field of activity may justify specialization, and the desirability of placing responsibility for the staff supervision of the execution of plans as well as the direct control and supervision of personnel specializing in that field may provide further justification. For example, in a department in which street-traffic duties are performed by members of the patrol division, a superior officer (such as a platoon lieutenant) may be responsible for planning police traffic control in addition to his other duties; he may also supervise, in a staff capacity, the execution of his plans. With the growth of the community, his patrol and traffic duties will finally increase to the point where he is unable to perform all of them satisfactorily. It may be necessary to assign the traffic duties to an officer who will devote full time to traffic control. This assignment usually marks the origin of a traffic division.

The Dissimilarity of the Task to Other Duties. Some duties are sufficiently dissimilar to all others to justify specialization, even though special skills are not required. For example, the tasks of an officer assigned to a fixed traffic post and the duties of service units, such as records, communications, and identification, are all dissimilar to the usual police tasks. Dissimilarities are also found in certain types of investigation. For example, the investigation of cases involving stolen automobiles, worthless checks, and commercialized vice are all dissimilar. On the other hand, preliminary investigations of crimes and arrests for traffic violations are not markedly dissimilar to other duties performed by patrolmen.

Attitude of Personnel toward the Task. An uncooperative attitude of police officers toward a particular task frequently results in its neglect and makes it necessary to assign it to a special group who are interested and enthusiastic in the promotion of the program. There have been instances where patrolmen and their supervisory officers, even the district station commanders, are unsympathetic, or even opposed, to such programs as control of juvenile crime, vice, or even traffic, making it necessary to assign the program to a special group. After the wisdom of the program has been demonstrated, opposition to it may disappear, and the need for specialization will then be diminished.

Interference with Usual Duties. When the performance of a task interferes with the usual duties of an officer, there may be justification for relieving him of its performance and assigning it to a special individual or unit. For example, a patrolman may conduct criminal investigations up to the point where the amount of time spent at such work interferes with the performance of his regular patrol duties. If the investigation takes him from his beat to some other section of the community, or if it requires him to spend considerable time at headquarters or in buildings where his services are not available for regular patrol, he should be relieved of these tasks. Interference with usual duties must be considered also in placing responsibility on a superior officer in the patrol division for staff planning and control in a specialized field. The same holds true in making assignments to desk officers, dispatchers, information clerks, and others assigned to posts for the performance of infrequent, but important, duties.

The Size of the Force and Area of Jurisdiction. Little specialization is justified in the small department; but as its size increases, the need for specialization grows. The area covered by the police force also affects the degree of specialization. A state police force of 500 men must necessarily be less specialized than a municipal force of equal size. A state trooper is responsible for all crime investigation, vice control, and traffic regulation in his district; whereas in many cities one group of policemen regulates traffic, another controls vice, and a third makes crime investigations, thus relieving the patrolman of some responsibility in these specialized fields.

Chapter 3

ORGANIZATION FOR COMMAND

The purpose of organization is to simplify the direction, coordination, and control of members of the force so that the objectives of the department may be gained easily, effectively, and satisfactorily. The personnel must be directed; they must be given definite tasks and instructed in their performance. Since many are engaged in the same or related tasks, their efforts must be coordinated if they are to work in harmony. Finally, control must be provided; someone must see that each assignment is carried out as ordered. These functions of leadership and command require the exercise of authority and must be provided for in the organization structure.

The process of command necessarily includes delegation of authority. Decisions must be made as to the number of immediate subordinates and the grouping of tasks to be assigned to each. Limitations must be placed on the use of authority, but provision must be made to assure suitable control of personnel at all times, in all places, and under all circumstances. This chapter discusses these and related problems of command in a police organization.¹

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

The necessity for a division of personnel according to the level of authority arises from the human limitations of the leader. If all duties were performed by half-a-dozen men working on the same shift and in the same room, one man could easily direct, coordinate, and control them. As the number is increased, and as they are separated by time and place, the chief has greater and greater need for assistance in commanding his force. The superior officer of each functional, time, and place group into which the force is divided aids the chief in his command duties by directing, coordinating, and controlling the members assigned to his unit. Each superior officer must be held responsible for the performance of tasks assigned to him and consequently must be given the necessary control over personnel and matériel in his unit to enable him

¹ See also Chap. 18 for treatment of some of the special organization problems of the large department that utilizes district stations.

to discharge this responsibility. This necessity justifies the rule of command that: *A person cannot be held responsible for the accomplishment of an order unless he has delegated to him the authority necessary for its accomplishment.* When this rule is observed, the giving of an order (placing of responsibility) is a delegation of essential authority.

Authority of Unit Heads. The superior officer of each organization unit has command of every man within the organization pyramid beneath him. The chief is at the apex of the pyramid and has command over all members of the force; he is responsible for the attainment of all police objectives without regard to function, time, or place, even though his department is divided according to major objectives into patrol, traffic control, and so on. The head of the patrol division, in turn, has command over all patrolmen and is responsible for all patrol functions, even though the patrol force is divided into companies according to district (place) and into platoons according to time. The captain of a district likewise is responsible for all patrol functions in his jurisdiction regardless of the time of day. A platoon lieutenant is responsible for all police operations in his district during the time of his shift.

Limitation of Delegated Authority. The division of the tasks of command among the officers of the various police units is known as delegation of authority. The authority that the chief delegates to a superior officer is not the total authority of the chief; rather, it is limited to the command of members within the pyramid of authority of that officer. That officer, in turn, delegates the authority given to him among the heads of smaller subordinate units. This process is continued until the lowest level of execution is reached. The delegation of authority may be divided into policy formulation, direction, supervision, and execution.

Policy Formulation. Policy may be handed to the chief in the form of legislation or an administrative order from the head of the city or of a board. Other policy may be formulated by the chief himself. The expression of authority by the chief may be principally in the form of statements of policy, i.e., broad statements of action to be taken by the department. Such policy statements are ineffective until they are implemented by specific directions.

Direction. To carry out the policies of the chief, a large number of people located in various organization units, according to the nature, time, and place of their duty, must be given specific directions. The essence of direction is assignment; it consists of directing someone to do something. Decisions must be made as to precisely what is to be done to implement the policy, who is to do it, and when, where, and how it is to be done, so that the efforts of all members may be coordinated

and the force thus may work as an integrated team toward the accomplishment of its purpose.

Supervision. Supervision of officers engaged in carrying out their assigned tasks is essential; assistance and guidance must be provided to assure successful performance.

Execution. Authority is also expressed at the level of execution. Authority is more than a right or privilege to perform the task; it is accompanied by a responsibility to do so—a requirement that it be done.

The processes of policy formulation, direction, supervision, and execution are not each limited to a sharp level of authority. Policy decisions of less importance, for example, may be made at every level of authority including the lowest level of execution. Direction will likewise be effected at every level by actual or implied commands. Supervision and execution must be provided at each level; each officer at every level of authority is responsible for, and must be supervised in, the execution of some task.

UNITY OF COMMAND

In police service it is important (1) that only one man be in complete command of each situation and (2) that only one man be in direct command or supervision of each officer. Singleness of purpose is not attained when more than one superior undertakes independent command of an operation performed by several subordinates or when a subordinate receives orders from more than one superior; the orders are not likely to be harmonious, and conflicting orders confuse subordinates and prevent coordination of the efforts of the group.

Command outside the Pyramid of Authority. The two principles stated above are, however, sometimes mutually antagonistic. Officers from different units are sometimes engaged together in an operation, and if the project is to be under the control of one person, one superior must exercise control for that particular operation. Police operations (like combat in war) sometimes require instant decision and action. To require a superior officer, under these circumstances, to seek control of members of units not under his command through appeal to higher authority would be inconsistent with the purpose of organization; the procedure is so cumbersome and time consuming as to jeopardize the objective.

While superiority of rank does not ordinarily authorize an officer to assume command over subordinate members of the force outside his unit,² two circumstances are found which warrant command by a superior

² Department regulations may specify that under certain circumstances an officer in a designated position will assume command of the on-duty personnel of all

of members not in his unit. The first circumstance includes the emergency situations mentioned above that demand immediate action in order not to jeopardize the police purpose and the reputation of the department, such as (1) at the scene of a crime, explosion, or other catastrophe, where the superior may demand, and should receive, assistance in performing essential tasks from any lesser officer regardless of the unit to which he is regularly assigned or (2) when a lesser officer requires immediate correction. The second circumstance is routine dispatching and the giving of orders by an officer in a staff capacity, *i.e.*, without authority in his own right, but actually in the name of someone else, even though that person is not designated in the giving of the order.

Authority through Department Regulations. The exercise of command over personnel outside the pyramid of authority under the circumstances outlined above must not violate the principle of unity of command. In theory the principle is not violated because the superior officer is, in a sense, speaking for the commanding officer of the subordinate, ordering him to do what his commander would require of him were he present in person. In practice it is not violated if the command is exercised in conformity with department regulations which automatically grant to an officer confronted with a situation requiring immediate action authority to cut across the usual lines of control. These out-of-the-ordinary relationships should be formalized in regulations to avoid misunderstanding and confusion.³

Duty of Subordinate to Obey. The superior officer must appraise the emergency that confronts him and decide on his justification for assuming command over subordinates outside his unit. The subordinate has no alternative; he must obey the order, but he or his commander may later protest the misuse of authority. The superior must not interfere with the performance of routine duties by subordinates not in his unit except when the police purpose or the reputation of the department is jeopardized. A superior officer is frequently tempted to assume command over a lesser officer outside his unit who is performing a task in which

divisions. For example, the patrol-division platoon lieutenant may be given general supervision and direction of all officers on duty during his tour, in the absence of their supervising officer. The line of authority in field operations and during the absence of the chief from the city is discussed on pp. 56-57.

³ For example, superior officers should be held responsible for the good order, conduct, and discipline of all officers under their control, and they should require them to comply with all rules and orders and to perform all duties assigned to them in the duty manual. They should exercise direct command over lesser officers outside their usual command in all situations where the police purpose or reputation of the department is jeopardized.

the superior has an interest. This he should not do, although he may discuss the matter with the lesser officer, and if this does not correct the situation, he may seek correction at a higher level.

SPAN OF CONTROL AND CHAIN OF COMMAND

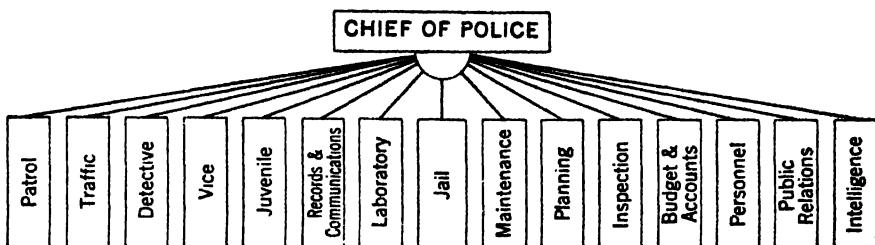
It is the function of superior officers who are subordinate to an executive to aid him in his exercise of the function of command. To the extent that they simplify the tasks of command and control, they succeed in this purpose; but if they increase or complicate these tasks, they fail. The manner in which subordinates are grouped below the executive in his pyramid of authority determines in large part how well they are able to assist him. The grouping is influenced by the number of levels of subordinate authority and the number of immediate subordinates at each level.

Span of Control. The ability of one man to direct, coordinate, and control immediate subordinates—his span of control—has physical limits, because he can be in only one place at one time, and he cannot work 24 hours each day. There are also definite mental limits to the number of immediate subordinates that he can command successfully. As the number is increased, particularly if the subordinates are separated from the superior by time and space, the tasks of command increase. A limit must be placed on their number so that the direction, coordination, and control of subordinates is not beyond the span of control of the executive.

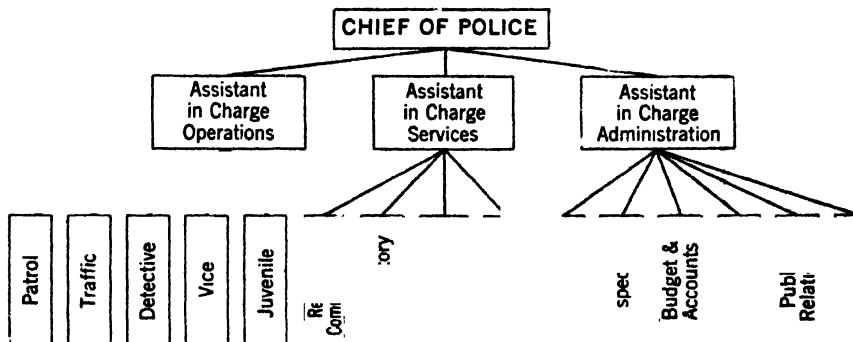
The span of control of individuals varies. It is determined by such factors as native ability; the complexity of the tasks to be performed by subordinates; separation of the superior from immediate subordinates by time or place; the time demanded by the public in the form of speeches, ceremonies, and personal appointments; and the time taken in official extradepartmental conferences. Consequently, no effort is made to establish an arbitrary number as the optimum.⁴

⁴ Bruce Smith in *The Baltimore Police Survey* (p. 69, Institute of Public Administration, New York City.) makes this pertinent observation: "It has been the uniform experience of commercial, industrial, military, and law-enforcement organizations, that the number of subordinate supervisors must be held to a modest figure if direction of their work is to be effective. Leading commentators on the theory of organization place the limits of this span of control at six subordinates, though in some cases police forces have extended it to eight, without loss of directive power. If practicable limits are exceeded, the number of persons seeking decisions and action on administrative questions becomes so large, and the interrelations between them trace such a complex pattern, that the supervising administrator soon is involved in detail. Confusion, uncertainty, and delay inevitably follow."

The effective span of control of many executives is less than they attempt to exercise. Two factors cause the administrator to attempt a control beyond his limit: (1) an overestimation of his ability and (2) an inability or unwillingness to delegate authority because of a



Organization A: The chief has face-to-face contact with 15 immediate subordinates, providing a wide span of control and close participation in the operations of each unit.



Organization B: The chief has face-to-face contact with only three immediate subordinates, and consequently his span of control is greatly narrowed. However, the added level of authority removes the chief from such active participation in operations by increasing the length of the chain of command.

CHART V. Narrowing the span of control by lengthening the chain of command.

desire or real need to exercise a close control over operations. The desire may originate in the executive's sense of his own indispensability and his conviction that his subordinates are incapable of making wise decisions; the need may arise from subordinates who are incompetent because of poor selection and inadequate training.

A broad span of control, as illustrated by Organization A in Chart V, requires the chief to make a large number of decisions and to participate in operating details. Because of the large number of officers reporting directly to him, the task of coordination is increased. The chief's time

is likely to be so occupied by participation in details of operation that he has little time to perform his primary administrative tasks of planning, inspection, or other management duties. There is grave danger that the burden of details will overwhelm him and prevent him from exercising a positive, creative, and imaginative leadership.

Chain of Command. The span of control may be reduced by the use of additional levels of supervisory officials, thus lengthening the chain of command. The line of control necessarily divides at each level of authority in the chain of command, since at each level the power of command is delegated to subordinates. An increase in the number of immediate subordinates increases the difficulty of command, whereas a decrease made possible by extending the chain of command by an increase in the number of levels of authority tends to simplify the tasks of command. This relationship is illustrated in Chart V.

The utilization of an intermediate level of command, as illustrated by Organization *B* in Chart V, which lengthens the chain of command, relieves the head of much of the burden of command and gives him more free time to inspect the department and plan improvements. The extra level of authority interposed between him and the level of execution, however, lessens his personal participation in police operations, impedes somewhat the easy and rapid flow of information up and down the channels of control, lessens the ability of the leader personally to control operations, and may diminish the effectiveness of his personality and add to department red tape. Lengthening the chain of command is not, therefore, an unmixed good. Each added level of authority removes the chief by one more intermediary from actual operations and consequently from the opportunity personally to direct, coordinate, and control the efforts of the force.

Optimum Span of Control. In the organization of his force, therefore, the chief must decide the relationships that are to prevail in the distribution of his subordinates, *i.e.*, he must decide on the relative width of the span of control and the length of the chain of command. A similar decision must be made within each pyramid of command at every level of authority. Are the pyramids to be short and broad or tall and narrow? There is no standard optimum ratio between the span of control and the length of the chain of command applicable at each level of authority and in every situation. The height and width of each pyramid will be determined by conditions that prevail in the particular situation, such as time available for administrative tasks, the competence and reliability of subordinates, and the ability of the head to delegate authority.

ORGANIZATION FOR ADMINISTRATION

When the number of immediate subordinates (division heads) becomes many and the administrative duties heavy, as in a large department, it may be desirable to provide assistance to the chief in the performance of some of his duties by reorganizing the top level so that he may have time for more important tasks. The reorganization may take one of two forms: (1) He may narrow his span of control by the creation of intermediaries between himself and his present immediate subordinates or (2) he may retain his present span of control and obtain assistance in the form of an executive officer or chief of staff.

Functional Division of Administrative Duties. Assistance is usually provided by one or more assistant chiefs who are given direct control over selected functional units, thus narrowing the chief's span of control and lengthening his chain of command. When units with similar or related duties are assigned to an assistant, some advantages of specialization are derived. A clear and precise definition of the duties of each assistant is essential to effective operation; otherwise there may be friction and discord, or important duties may be overlooked.

Operations, Services, and Administration. A logical functional division separates the immediate subordinates of the chief into those in charge of units performing the primary police tasks, those in charge of the service units performing the auxiliary duties, and those in charge of staff units performing purely administrative tasks. An assistant may be placed in charge of each group, as shown in Organization *B*, Chart V. One assistant is then in charge of line operations, another is in charge of the auxiliary services, and a third is in charge of staff administrative duties. As previously pointed out, however, deviation from a plan of rigid classification of functional units may be justified by unusual qualifications (personality, native ability, experience, and so on) of an individual assistant.

Number and Limitation of Authority of Assistants. Conditions may not justify three assistants, in which case the chief would reserve for himself the direct control of one or two of the three groups of tasks, assigning the others to one or two assistants, the assignments being based on relative abilities and interest; or he may consolidate the auxiliary services and staff administrative duties under one assistant, in which case he might reserve important administrative tasks for his own supervision. For example, he might have two assistants, one in charge of operations and the other in charge of auxiliary services and all administrative duties except inspection, planning, and intelligence; these latter tasks would then be under the direct control of the chief, who might,

POLICE ADMINISTRATION

for reasons discussed in the next chapter, assign over-all planning to the inspector or the inspection unit. This organization is portrayed in Chart VI. Each assistant has command of the members within his

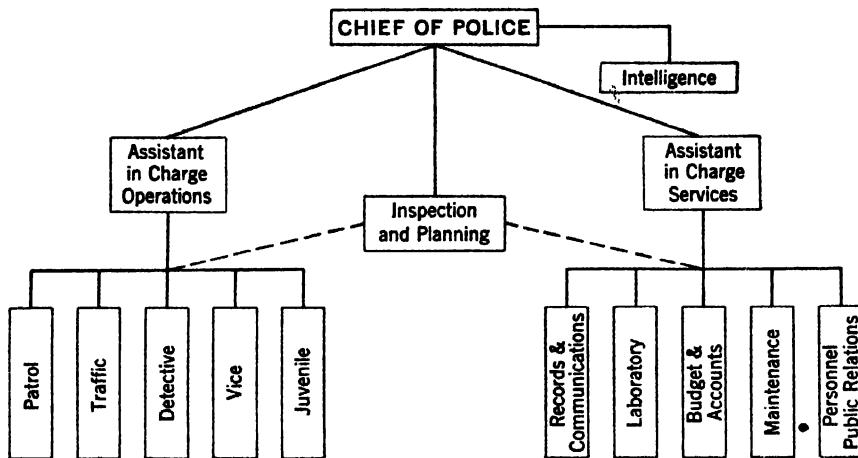


CHART VI. Force organized with two assistant chiefs.

own pyramid of authority and ordinarily does not exercise direct control over the personnel of the others.

The Chief of Staff. The disadvantages of assistant chiefs in intermediate command between the chief and the functional division heads

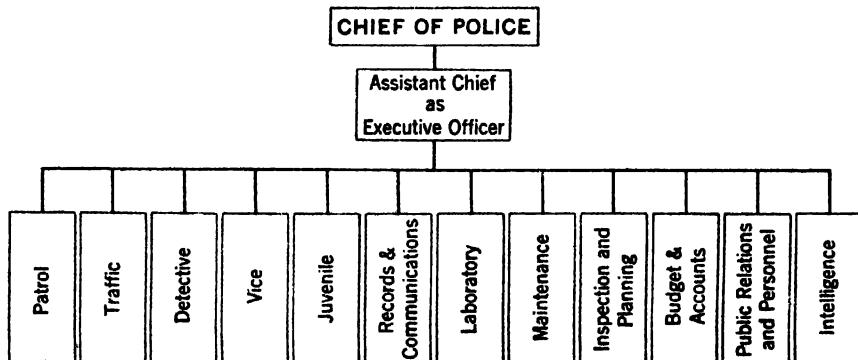


CHART VII. Force organized with an executive officer.

may be avoided and the advantages of a broader control gained by the appointment of an assistant chief who may be designated as the executive officer or chief of staff (see Chart VII). The duties of this officer are to shield the head from unwanted detail by screening all

matters intended for his attention, making decisions (when he knows how the chief would make them), and disposing of inquiries and requests himself or by referring them to other offices. He would exercise no command in his own right and consequently would not have direct control of any functional unit except in the chief's name; he would be purely a staff officer. He may have a rank below that of assistant chief.

This organization plan is suited to departments in which the need for an assistant chief has recently developed. An executive officer, however, may also sometimes be used advantageously in large departments with assistant chiefs in charge of functional units.

The police executive who wishes to avoid some of the previously mentioned disadvantages of a lengthened chain of command and to enjoy the advantages of a broader span of control may appoint an executive officer.⁵ The substantial advantages of this arrangement are gained when the executive officer clearly understands his true relationship to the chief and the rest of the department; the executive officer must have an extremely close relationship to the chief and understand his mind to know how he would decide most matters. The loyalty of the executive officer to the chief must be unquestioned, for this relationship to work well. Unless those conditions can be met, this form of organization is not advised.

DIRECTION AND COORDINATION

Leadership provides direction and coordination by inspiration and by the authority of command. The lines of direct control are the channels through which the power of command passes in directing and coordinating the force. Direction affects those in the vertical line extending from the top to the level of execution; coordination affects two or more who must work in unison and who are usually of equal authority and consequently in a horizontal position in reference to each other and sometimes under a different immediate command. Coordination is ordinarily effected by the first superior in the hierarchy of command who has the officers being coordinated within his pyramid of authority.

Direction by Command. It is impossible and it would be undesirable for the chief personally to give every command to every man who is engaged in an operation. He cannot be in two places at one time, cannot work 24 hours a day, and, finally, does not have the time (or in some cases the ability) to make every decision that must be made in the course of the operation, or to work out the detail involved in the formulation of each order. Instead, he gives the signal to go, and a plan, more or less completely prepared, is placed in operation. If the operation

⁵ The need for a close control over operations was discussed on p. 42.

involves only one functional division, one order to put the plan in operation is given to the head of the unit. Many orders must be given by this officer to his immediate subordinates, sometimes a different set of orders to each. The subordinates may have questions, and consequently decisions must be made. These subordinates, in turn, will formulate orders for their subordinates—more questions will be asked, and more decisions must be made. When a question is asked that cannot be answered, or when the officer in charge is unwilling to accept the responsibility of making a decision on an important matter, he refers the problem to his immediate superior, who in most cases will make the decision, although in some instances it may be referred up the various levels of authority to the chief. The directions to the men who do the job thus come down the lines of control. This flow of direction from one head to his subordinates is shown by the arrows in Chart IV.

Coordination of the Force. The efforts of the force must be coordinated if the plan is to operate satisfactorily. Coordination is teamwork, the harmonious combination of the efforts of two or more persons toward a common end.⁶ The need for coordination arises from the fact that police duties are not amenable to as sharp lines of demarcation as are police personnel. The organization of the force is a mechanical structure built of units of man power, the least common denominator being one man; consequently, each officer must be assigned to only one unit. Police duties, however, do not fall into such a rigid pattern of kind, or place, or time. A police operation may extend over the 24 hours of the day and over the entire area of the city. Since police incidents frequently involve several types of violations, the operation may not be clearly classifiable as purely traffic, vice, crime investigation, or patrol. Under such circumstances, the members of more than one division or platoon and of more than one district or beat may be assigned to tasks involved in the operation. Since the relationships between patrol and each of the specialized divisions is influenced by the effectiveness of patrol service, the following paragraphs discuss the coordination of the efforts of the various patrol units to assure a superior level of performance.

Coordination of Geographical Patrol Units. The coordination of the work of officers dispatched to a house being burglarized requires that

"... two men who combine their efforts to lift and move a stone that is too heavy to be moved by one . . . must lift in unison. Without this combination of effort the result would be futile. Here we have coordination, the first principle of organization. Likewise one of these two must give the signal 'heave ho' or its equivalent, to the other, thus illustrating the principle of leadership or command." (James D. Mooney, *Papers on the Science of Administration*, p. 91. Institute of Public Administration, New York.)

they be sent at the same time and that they be deployed about the grounds so as to cut off escape. The coordination of the efforts of officers on several beats on the same tour of duty, as in this example, presents no difficult problems. This situation is illustrated diagrammatically in Chart VIII by circle A. The lines of direct control are clearly established, and the relationships, being simple, are easily understood. The principle of unity of command is not jeopardized, and the efforts of the patrolmen comprising a platoon are easily integrated and directed toward a common objective. The coordinating authority is vested in the officer in command, who is aided in its application by the dispatcher, who performs this service by virtue of the power of command delegated to him (see pages 50-52).

Two questions are involved in the coordination of geographical units: (1) Should a service extending beyond the limits of one beat be provided by one officer, presumably the one on whose beat the need originates, or should tasks relating to its performance on another beat be assigned to the officer on the second beat? A decision must be made in each case because of such variables as distance, the complexity of the task, relative present work loads of the two officers, and their relative competence in terms of native ability, training, and experience. The intricacy of the task is also an important determining factor; more time might be spent in giving the second officer instructions and the necessary background of explanation necessary to its successful accomplishment than would be required in its performance by an officer already informed on all details of the case. (2) In a city divided into police districts, should officers from one district be dispatched into another to aid in disposing of incidents that occur near the dividing boundary? The advisability of doing so is apparent, and the practice is the natural one when dispatching is centrally initiated and controlled.

Coordination of Platoons. The continuity of service represented in the continuance or completion by a relieving platoon of a service initiated some time before presents another coordination problem found within circle B, Chart VIII. Two units are involved, each with its own commanding officer, which necessitates including their common superior in the relationship if the full coordinating power of authority is to be utilized. Since this superior will usually not be present in person, the full force of his authority is absent, and some difficulty may be experienced in coordinating the effort of the two platoons. The difficulty results (1) from a blurring of the definiteness of the objective. Facts vivid in the minds of those actively engaged in the performance of a task lose vitality in being reported; regardless of how accurately and in what detail

POLICE ADMINISTRATION

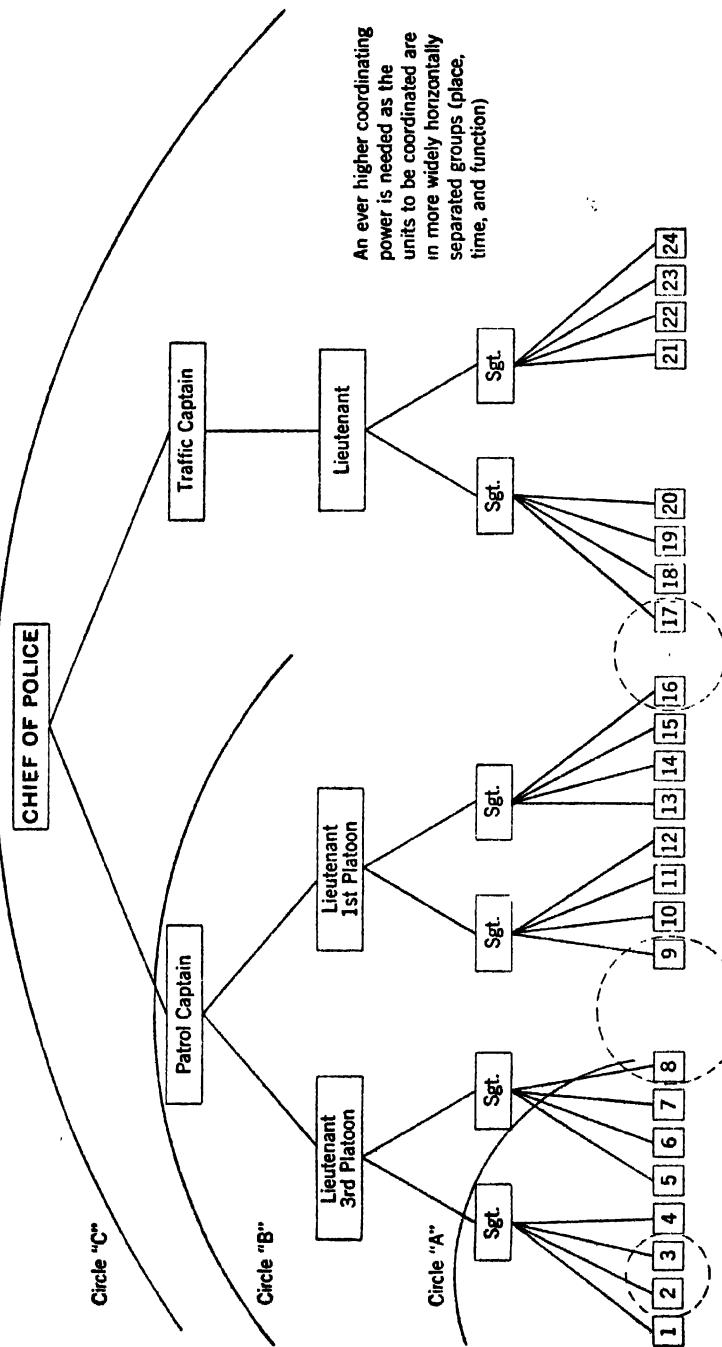


CHART VIII. The power to coordinate officers 2 and 3 is held by a sergeant and is contained in circle A; for officers 8 and 9, it is held by a captain in circle B; and for officers 16 and 17, the coordinating power of the chief is required. This coordinating power (circle C) encompasses the entire department.

information is passed from one platoon to the next, the relieving platoon commander and his subordinates will not have so complete a background of information and understanding. (2) Since platoon commanders are of equal rank and authority, the commanding officer of the relieving platoon may not approve the plan of operation; consequently the plan may be changed, thus sometimes causing delay and interfering with the continuity of the operation. (3) The sense of responsibility is somewhat dulled; a feeling sometimes exists that, since the task was initiated by another platoon, it should have been completed by its personnel.

Continuity of service, as between platoons, is essential to effective operation. Machinery must be provided for accurately transmitting facts, for placing responsibility for the satisfactory continuance of uncompleted tasks, for inspectional follow-up to assure proper operation, and for the delegation, by department regulations, of authority to one platoon lieutenant to direct the lieutenant of a succeeding platoon to complete an unfinished task.⁷

Coordination of Functional Units. Diversity of purpose and tasks and the higher position in the chain of command usually occupied by the heads of functional units make more difficult the coordination of the efforts of units separated in function. For example, if the individuals are in separate functional units, such as traffic and patrol, as shown by officers 16 and 17 in Chart VIII, in all but the largest departments the coordinating officer would be the chief, and the coordination takes place within circle C.

The problem of the coordination of functional units could be eliminated by the imposition of artificial limits to prevent one unit from engaging in any way in an activity assigned to another; in poorly organized and weakly administered departments, the problem is sometimes handled in this way. However, more effective police service usually results when the efforts of several functional units are directed toward an important objective. Progressive departments are organized functionally and utilize as many functional units as may be necessary or desirable. A high degree of functionalization results in more effective operations; it also increases the problem of coordination. The type of relationships between the functional units that promotes coordination is described later (pages 53-54).

⁷ For example, the lieutenant should receive from the lieutenant relieved and pass on to the lieutenant relieving him any information concerning special assignments or duties, or any case to be worked on, or other information that might assist in department operations. The relieving lieutenant, when notified of a plan of action initiated but not completed by the preceding platoon, should be held responsible for lack of success resulting from his failure to carry it out as planned.

THE EXERCISE OF AUTHORITY

Command is essential to successful direction. For the purpose of this discussion, commands may be considered to be of two kinds: line and staff. Both types of command involve the active use of authority delegated by the chief.

Line Command. Line command is the exercise of the authority delegated by the chief to his immediate subordinates and by them to their subordinates down the lines of direct control to the lowest level of authority. Line command is simple in operation and involves no difficult relationships when the lines of control are clearly established and understood; it consists of the superior officer directing the efforts of his immediate subordinates by direct written or verbal order.

However, the direction of a police force, because of the nature of its work, presents some problems which are not present in most business organizations. (1) The force operates in the field and not in the actual and continuous presence of a superior officer. (2) Information regarding incidents that call for service is most frequently received at headquarters, and consequently orders for the performance of such services must come from headquarters. (3) Several orders must be given to each subordinate on each tour of duty; in the aggregate, many commands must be given as compared to the number necessary in directing the more routine tasks of business. Because of the large number of orders, the full time of commanding officers might be required if they personally issued all orders, thus leaving little or no time for other equally and sometimes more important tasks. Commanding officers, therefore, must have assistance in communicating their orders.

Staff Command. Staff command is the giving of orders by an agent who has no authority in his own right but who performs the routine tasks of command as a service for his principal. The agent may be a secretary, an aide, or an assistant who says in effect, "The chief says that you shall do so and so." When staff command is used frequently, reference to the principal is omitted, especially in routine operations where the relationships are clearly understood, as in the case of the dispatcher.

The Dispatcher. The dispatcher aids the commanding officers of all divisions in communicating their commands. He acts as an aide to each superior in command of officers in the field. He makes no actual decisions regarding an operation but merely classifies it and applies the routine procedures established by department regulations for this classi-

fication in the deployment and assignment of men.⁸ When unusual or emergency situations arise that are not covered by regulations, the commanding officer of the field force should outline the order; in his absence, the dispatcher must give the command that he believes the commanding officer would have given to meet the particular situation. In this case the order is still that of the commanding officer and not of the dispatcher. The platoon commander should give particular attention to broadcasts and, in important cases if the dispatcher fails to follow the prescribed procedure or to handle wisely an unusual or emergency situation, the platoon commander should order such correction as may be necessary.⁹

Physical location of dispatcher. Radio broadcasts are most frequently directed to the patrol force; police offices in departments having no district stations should consequently be located so that the dispatcher may easily confer with the platoon lieutenant, inform him immediately of any unusual occurrence, and obtain his advice in disposing of extraordinary incidents.¹⁰ This arrangement also enables the lieutenant to assume full command of all forces and direct them in person through the dispatcher in emergency situations.

Direct control of the dispatcher. Some police administrators assign the dispatcher to the patrol division, under the direct control of the station lieutenant, because the patrol division provides 24-hour service and supervision and the field force is usually largely patrol. However, even though the dispatcher is under the direct control of the lieutenant, the orders given by the dispatcher are actually staff commands, unless he is in fact the lieutenant; otherwise the principle of unity of command would be violated.

Dispatching a staff service. The advantages of emphasizing the staff-service character of dispatching by assigning the dispatcher to an auxiliary or service unit instead of to an operating unit are given below.

1. Dispatching is a service used by all operating units in controlling their members. The dispatcher cannot have direct control of the officers of a unit to which he is not attached; their control must be by staff command.

⁸ Broadcasting procedures are discussed on pp. 103-107.

⁹ For reasons to be given later, the patrol commander is the logical officer to assume command of all field forces in emergency situations (see p. 55).

¹⁰ Office arrangement at police headquarters is discussed in Chap. 16. The lieutenant is not restricted to headquarters but he should be in radio communication with the dispatcher when performing street duties.

2. When the dispatcher is assigned to an operating unit, the personnel of other units may ask whether they are taking orders from the operating unit having direct control of the dispatcher. Friction results when a commanding officer of one unit appears to direct the personnel of other units. Units performing primary police tasks should be considered of equal rank; questions of relative rank are avoided when dispatching is a service to all.

3. A temptation to command is lessened when the dispatcher and others involved understand the purely staff character of the service.

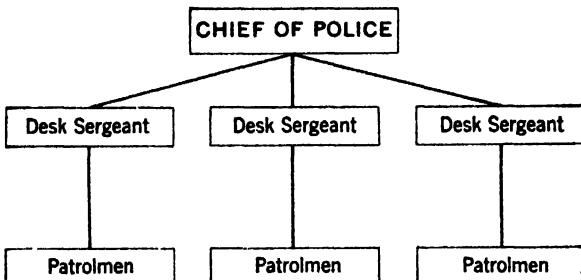


CHART IX. Organization of small department with no specialization in execution or planning.

4. The dispatcher is not best suited to perform the duties of a commanding officer; he cannot personally supervise and control operating personnel because his presence is restricted to headquarters.

5. Dispatching originates ordinarily from complaints that are registered by the dispatcher in all but the large departments. The registration of complaints by a service division, rather than by an operating unit that is responsible for crime conditions, increases fidelity of recording and reporting.

6. The dispatcher is subject to continuous supervision by the records division in the registering and recording of complaints, but to relatively little supervision by the line units. Consequently it is more important that the dispatcher be assigned to the records division than to a line unit.¹¹

Patrol Sergeant vs. Desk Sergeant. A problem of the relative rank of the patrol sergeant and the dispatcher or desk sergeant arises in small departments having no platoon lieutenant. When the desk sergeant has direct command over the field force, the patrol sergeant is subordinate to him, an impractical arrangement because routine tasks of command

¹¹ For additional reasons for placing the central complaint bureau under the control of a central records division, see Chap. 14 and O. W. Wilson, *Police Records: Their Installation and Use*, pp. 13-15, Public Administration Service, Chicago,

leave the desk officer insufficient time for important tasks of supervision and control of personnel. The duties of the patrol sergeant, with their opportunities for observation and direct contact with officers and situations, make him the logical officer to be placed in command. Consequently, in departments of this size, regulations should place the patrol sergeant in command, with the desk officer as an aide to perform routine tasks of command.

In still smaller departments, lacking both a platoon lieutenant and a patrol sergeant, the situation is different. Here the necessity of having someone in command makes essential the assignment of the desk sergeant to the patrol division so that a direct control of the field force may be exercised. In this case, the desk sergeant would be exercising line command of personnel under his direct control, as shown in Chart IX.

TIME DIVISION OF TASKS OF COMMAND

Police service is provided 24 hours each day, and the chief is responsible for all police acts and for crime conditions without regard to hour. Division heads likewise are responsible for the operation of their units at all hours of the day and night. Neither the chief nor division heads are physically able to remain on duty 24 hours each day of the year. Provision, therefore, must be made for the performance of the command duties of these key figures during their absence.

Command of Division. Within each division, during hours when the division head is ordinarily not on duty, commanding or supervisory officers are usually in charge of members then on duty. The patrol division provides 24-hour service and consequently should have a commanding officer for each shift; in departments of appropriate size one of three lieutenants is in charge of each platoon,¹² and he is authorized to take all necessary action to assure the performance of the duties of his force.¹³

While the patrol division and the records and communications division usually provide 24-hour service, the necessity for continuous service by other divisions depends upon need. Detectives, traffic, and juvenile-division officers usually are not on duty throughout the 24 hours, and the vice division, except in the largest departments, is a single squad that works irregular hours, varying its service from day to day according to need. Service by supervisory and command officers of the specialized divisions is almost always less continuous than service by men at the

¹² In smaller forces the captain commands the day shift without assistance, while a lieutenant is assigned to each of the other shifts.

¹³ Department regulations should require the patrol lieutenant to notify his captain of any unusual event or grave crime.

level of execution; when the number on duty does not justify the assignment of a supervising officer, no competent authority from the specialized unit is available to make decisions and take action.

Continuous supervision, so essential to the effective performance of all police tasks, is difficult when members of a special unit are on duty in the absence of their own supervisory officers. For example, the juvenile division may have one or more officers on duty during the evening hours when their supervising officers are off duty; the traffic division may have two or more officers assigned to downtown traffic control with no traffic sergeant on duty in the area at the time; records and communications officers will be on duty at night in the absence of supervisors from their own division. The cost of the assignment of a supervisory officer to meet this less-than-full load may not be justified.

Staff Supervision. The supervisory staff of the patrol force, available 24 hours each day, may be used to provide supervision of the members of other divisions in the absence of their own superior officers. The supervision may be provided by the patrol division in one of two ways. The special personnel may be attached to and under the direct control of the supervisory officers of the patrol division, but devote full attention to the special tasks. When specialists are attached to the patrol division in this manner, patrol supervisors may interfere with the techniques used in the performance of special tasks, or divert the personnel from the special duty to meet an emergency, or other unusual need, and fail to reassign them to the original task when the need has ended, or assign time-consuming duties to the specialists that may interfere with the performance of the special tasks. This arrangement, therefore, does not work well when the superior officers of the patrol division are not in complete sympathy with the special task or when the need for specialization is great—as when the task is highly specialized, the amount of work considerable, or the duties important.

The alternative procedure eliminates these disadvantages by leaving the specialists under the direct control of their own division and delegating their supervision to the patrol division. This delegated or staff supervision is the supervision of the man without regard to the quality or method of performance of his task; it is a general supervision relating to the time of reporting on and off duty, attention to work, and compliance with department regulations (see also Chap. 4).

Department-wide Command. A coordinating power transcending that of the heads of divisions is needed in situations that require the services of the on-duty members of several or all divisions. This supreme co-ordinating power belongs to the chief or to someone authorized to act for him. The necessity of having only one person in command of each situa-

tion makes essential a time division of the chief's duties of command so that one person who has the effective power will be in control of all police operations at every hour.

Coordination by Operating Personnel. The most advantageous method of providing 24-hour availability of the chief's coordinating power is to vest this authority in operating personnel who are constantly on duty, and thus immediately available at all times to assume command of emergency situations. Patrol is the logical operating division to command emergency operations involving performance by members of all divisions. The patrol division (1) has the largest force, and consequently integration of members of other divisions with it is more simple because there is need to impose out-of-the-ordinary control over a smaller number; (2) it is the only operating division that invariably provides 24-hour service; (3) it is usually the first to learn of emergency calls and to reach the scene of action; and (4) since its duties encompass the entire police field, it has broader powers and greater responsibility than any other division (see Chap. 5). The patrol lieutenant, therefore, should be vested with extraordinary powers of command in emergency situations. This power is an extension of his power of staff supervision previously described.

The delegation by department regulation of the chief's power of command over the entire force should contain restrictions on its unnecessary use in order to minimize interference with routine operations. The line of command under every possible circumstance must also be established.

Coordination by Assistant Chief. Some departments appoint one or two assistant chiefs to be in charge during the hours when the chief is not on active duty, a practice not considered sound. While the rank has a favorable effect on intradepartmental relations and impresses citizens, who often insist on talking to a top man, prestige within the police ranks may be bolstered by department regulations and public demand seems an inadequate justification for the assignment of an assistant chief to night duty.

An assistant chief on duty at night, by reason of his rank and free time, almost invariably exercises direct control over the platoon lieutenants, even though department regulations may undertake to restrict his action to the infrequent situations that require his coordinating power. This violation of the principle of unity of command impairs the control of division commanders over their subordinate personnel and creates confusion and dissension. Since there are no duties relating to either operations or services that an assistant chief may perform during the absence of the heads of the divisions involved without violating the principle of unity of command, assistant chiefs should not be on duty at night.

Finally, the undesirable night hours seem a poor reward for an officer who has proved valuable enough to be promoted to next to the top position in the department. Assistant chiefs, therefore, should work during the daytime.

ORDER OF RANK

The order of rank listed in Chap. 1 should be established in department regulations with the stipulation that this sequence in rank will prevail under all ordinary circumstances and that, in the event of the incapacity of the chief or any of his subordinates, the mantle of authority will descend the ranks in the indicated order. Officers of every rank may thus know (1) what their command responsibility is and (2) who their superior is from whom they may seek decisions.

Deviations from this sequence to meet unusual situations must likewise be provided by regulations. Two activities require such deviation: (1) the performance of all administrative duties over a period of time, as when the chief is out of town or incapacitated, and (2) field operations by members of several divisions involving the search for or apprehension of a criminal; the handling of crowds at accidents, fires, explosions, parades, public meetings, athletic events, and other assemblages; and the protection of life and property during a riot, flood, earthquake, storm, or other catastrophe.

The skills needed in these two types of situations vary considerably, and the order of rank, therefore, may not be the same for each. Consequently regulations establishing the line of direct authority must be drafted on the basis of the personalities, skills, experience, and abilities of individuals and the nature of the tasks to be performed.

Administration of the Department. The best qualified assistant chief, usually the one in charge of operations, should be selected to act during the protracted absence of the chief. When there is no assistant chief, an acting chief must be chosen from the captains of the several divisions. The patrol captain, who usually has had the broadest police experience and should outrank the others, is the logical one to serve as acting chief of police. In some departments, however, differences in personality and ability may justify the chief in deviating from the usual procedure by appointing one of the other assistants or captains to serve in his absence.

Field Operations. Field operations necessitating performance by officers from more than one division vary in seriousness and scope; in some only the on-duty force is needed, whereas in others the entire resources of the department must be mobilized.

Regulations should stipulate that the hierarchy of command in field operations should follow the sequence listed in Chap. 1 but be restricted

ordinarily to patrol and the assistant chief in charge of operations or up to the chief. This establishes the line of normal control and the channel through which information and requests for decisions and assistance must flow; an officer in this hierarchy must be prepared to make decisions when consulted and to take command when, in his judgment, a subordinate needs his assistance.

In field operations, an officer from a division other than patrol who is superior in rank to the officer in command of the situation, or an assistant chief not in charge of operations, may come upon the scene. Such an officer is not in the normal hierarchy of command just described, but his rank establishes his authority and imposes on him a responsibility to take command when, in his judgment, the situation demands this action. His decision should be based on the seriousness of the situation, the suitability of the action being taken by the subordinate, and his own experience in dealing with such situations. For example, if a patrol lieutenant were coping with a situation satisfactorily, the captain of another division with limited experience in such matters would not presume to interfere; action would be required of him, however, if the situation was clearly out of hand, thus jeopardizing the police purpose and department reputation. The heads of such divisions as vice, crime-prevention, and records may have had only limited experience in other types of activities. The detective captain in the case of a serious crime, and the traffic captain in the event of an emergency jeopardizing the free flow of traffic, however, would have a real interest in the respective problems and might, if they thought that the patrol lieutenant needed their assistance, offer suggestions or take command of the situation.¹⁴

¹⁴ The principles involved in this situation are the same as those discussed under "Command outside the Pyramid of Authority," pp. 38-39.

Chapter 4

ORGANIZATION FOR PLANNING AND CONTROL

Since police objectives are attained by planning, directing, and controlling, the chief is responsible for the successful performance of these processes. Just as the exercise of authority is not restricted to the chief, but of necessity permeates the entire organization structure, so planning and control are not performed exclusively by any one person, but are in process throughout the organization. At each level of authority, the head must plan, direct, and control—from the chief down each successive level to the officer who performs the task.

The extent to which the chief should participate in planning and control cannot be defined exactly because it is influenced by the organization and size of the department. In practice the chief's participation is influenced by the amount of time he has available, his concept of the importance of a particular task, his interest in it, his confidence in the ability of his subordinates, and his own ability to delegate authority. His responsibility for their successful accomplishment, however, must be emphasized.

This chapter describes how the force may be organized to facilitate the processes of planning and control and to assure their successful performance. The planning process is treated in detail hereafter in Chap. 25, hence the present chapter is confined largely to control.

CONTROL

The discussion in the two previous chapters has been concerned with the distribution and exercise of authority among the functional, time, and place units of a police department. Misdirected or uncontrolled authority may do great harm; consequently controls must be provided so that all who exercise authority will be held responsible for the consequences of their actions. "Control," states Gulick,¹ "consists in seeing that everything is carried out in accordance with the plan which has been adopted, the organization which has been set up, and the orders which have been given. . . . Control is in a sense the consequence of command in action."

¹ Luther Gulick, *Papers on the Science of Administration*, p. 78. Institute of Public Administration, New York,

Authority cannot be delegated safely without this check and hence the rule: *Every delegation of authority should be accompanied by a commensurate placing of responsibility.*

Accountability of Command. A superior officer cannot rid himself of an iota of his own responsibility for the accomplishment of a project by giving orders to subordinates to perform the tasks. He may free himself of the actual performance of the tasks by delegating to subordinates the authority to perform them, and he may tell these subordinates that they are responsible for their successful performance, but the final accomplishment remains the responsibility of the delegating officer.

Rule of Control. Authority is delegated by some form of command; responsibility is effectively placed by some form of control. Delegated authority should be accompanied by accountability, but the responsibility lies dormant until the consequences of the use of the authority are ascertained. Until then there is no basis on which to hold the user accountable. The effective placing of responsibility or the act of holding accountable involves an evaluation of the manner in which the authority was exercised, hence the rule of control: *He who gives an order must ascertain that it has been properly executed.*

Inspection as an Implement of Control. It is relatively easy to delegate authority by giving a command, but to ascertain the manner in which the order was carried out so that the subordinate may be held responsible is often difficult. This knowledge is obtained by the process of inspection.

Control, therefore, is implemented by inspection, i.e., a critical review or examination involving careful scrutiny and analysis. Inspection, in some cases, may be accomplished through simple observation; in other instances, it may involve inquiry or the analysis of records and statistics.

Purpose of Inspection. The purpose of inspection is fourfold: (1) To ascertain whether the task is being performed as outlined—Are regulations and procedures being complied with? Has the operation developed as planned? (2) To learn whether the anticipated results are being attained. Does the operation accomplish what was expected of it? (3) To discover whether the resources of the department are being utilized to the best advantage. (4) To reveal the existence of need, thus accomplishing the first step in planning. While inspection may reveal an unsatisfactory condition that is an evidence of need, the condition by itself may not reveal the exact nature of the need. For example, noncompliance with regulations and procedures, unsatisfactory results and conditions, and failure to utilize department resources to best advantage may indicate a need for additional or modified organization, regulations, procedures, equipment, man power, training, direction, or leadership, but

determination of the exact nature of the need usually requires further examination.

Need for Inspection. Since police service is almost entirely a personal service, every condition in a police organization and its environment is traceable in a large measure to the acts of individual policemen and to the success or failure of their operations. If every member of the force were a paragon of virtue, industry, and judgment, and omniscient in his knowledge of department procedures and regulations, there would be no errors in judgment, no neglect of duty, and procedures would be followed to the letter. Under these conditions control of personnel would be unnecessary; orders would be carried out exactly as planned, and there would be no need for inspections.

Police officers are subject to the usual frailties of mankind, and consequently important advantages are gained by periodic inspections. Failures and errors may then be corrected before they assume serious proportions, and weaknesses overcome by modification of procedures or instructions. Even more important than discovering failures and weaknesses is the wholesome effect that inspection has on the men. Persons who know that their work will be scrutinized critically are more painstaking in their efforts and less likely to be guilty of neglect, errors, and poor judgment than persons whose work is not inspected. Inspections also raise morale because members of the force can then expect that they will receive credit for good work.

Scope of Inspection. Everything relating to the police department must be subject to control, and consequently inspection must be made of everything that comprises the police organization and its manifold operations. Conditions, situations, and actions that contribute to the success or failure of police operations are exposed by the inspection of persons, things, procedures, and results. The inspection process, however, cannot be sharply divided among these four classifications because of the interrelationships involved. The following examples of inspection make this fact apparent.

Persons. Determination of the health and physical appearance of the members of the force calls for examination of individuals. Compliance with regulations governing the care of the body (frequent baths, shaves, haircuts, manicures, and exercise) may be ascertained by a casual visual (and sometimes olfactory) inspection, whereas matters of health may require a thorough medical and laboratory examination. Likewise, morale and personality, both important factors in successful police operations, may be appraised only in part by observing the man; determination of the exact condition may require examination of the things the

person uses, his thoughts and attitudes, his actions and reactions, and finally, his accomplishments.

Things. The physical inspection of things indicates repair and replacement needs; it may also reveal the extent of compliance with regulations relating to the maintenance, care, or operation of the particular items. Police buildings, offices, corridors, and cell spaces must be inspected regularly to ascertain the state of repair, the need for paint, the adequacy of space, and the compliance of personnel with regulations affecting their care and use. Police vehicles; the police garage and laboratory and their equipment; department and privately owned weapons; uniforms and uniform equipment; records, files, and other office equipment; officers' notebooks; and radio and other communications equipment must likewise be examined. Supplies of every kind, physical evidence, and prisoners' property must be inspected to ascertain whether they are in good condition and suitably safeguarded.

Procedures and Actions. Whether procedures established by regulations are being followed is sometimes best established by observing men in action. The methods used in the tour of beats, the inspection of hazards, the challenge of suspects, the handling of violators, the investigation of a crime or accident, the surrounding of a building and its entry and search, the interrogation of suspects and witnesses, the search and transportation of prisoners, the use of communication devices and other equipment, or in any other police operation may be determined more accurately by observation of the acts than by analysis of the results or study of reports covering the particular incident. Not every action, however, can be observed; the observation of some, such as the stopping of suspicious characters and the arrest of violators may be observed infrequently and with some difficulty. Nevertheless, since it is important that department procedures be followed, all possible inspections must be made.

Results. An examination of results indicates the success of the operation, whether each task was performed in the manner outlined and whether the resources of the department were used to best advantage. In addition, it may reveal needs not previously discovered. The inspection of results includes the analysis of statistics, the examination of reports on incidents, and a determination of public reactions; in research and analysis inspection goes hand in hand with planning.

AUTHORITATIVE AND STAFF INSPECTION

Inspection is of two kinds: (1) An authoritative inspection, by those in direct control of the persons and things being inspected, is made to see

that the tasks are satisfactorily performed; and (2) a staff inspection, by those who have no direct control over them, is made to see whether they have been satisfactorily accomplished. The one making an authoritative inspection is applying the rule of control and should take direct action to see that the job is properly performed; the one making a staff inspection lacks this direct control and ordinarily must report the findings to someone in direct command for action.

Authoritative Inspection. Authoritative inspection, made by superior officers charged with responsibility for the accomplishment of an operation, is the more or less continuous inspection of the process of accomplishing the task. It is an essential part of the doing process, if the superior is to assure satisfactory accomplishment by holding subordinates to account. Control, inherent in command, follows the channels of authority, and consequently no problems in organization distinct from those of command arise in its operation.

As long as the chief gives his order directly to the person who executes it, as in a small department, inspection is fairly simple, being a part of the task of supervision. As the chain of command is lengthened, however, the inspectional process becomes more complicated because those responsible for seeing that the task is accomplished at the various levels of authority are farther removed from the one who does it.

For example, in a small department, a chief might order a patrolman to enforce a certain regulation, and he would ascertain by personal inspection (in a supervisory capacity) that his order was being carried out day by day. If in a very large department such an order emanated from the chief, it would not be given directly to the patrolman but would descend through the several levels of authority of assistant chief, captain, lieutenant, and sergeant. This delegation of authority down the chain of command involves no complications, but knowledge of the results, necessary if those at each level of authority are to be held accountable, ascends to the chief with difficulty.

Application of the Rule of Control. The primary interest of the chief is to know that his order has been executed, which is his application of the rule of control. He is not primarily interested in ascertaining the suitability of the orders issued on the basis of his command. The urgent nature of most police operations makes impossible a preview by the chief of each order issued by his subordinates, and limited time makes impossible a later review by him. Neither is he primarily interested in knowing that they were issued, and consequently he would not expect subordinates to report the fact of issuance, because that is not the essence of the responsibility. His primary concern is to see to it that his

order has been carried out—not the form and methods used in its execution.

Sample Inspections. How then is each officer in the chain of command to ascertain that each order which he has issued has been complied with so that the rule of control may be applied at each level? The sergeant's day-by-day supervision enables him to obtain this information by frequent and regular inspection. The lieutenant, also responsible for the accomplishment of the task, has delegated the necessary authority to his sergeant, but he can hold the sergeant responsible only by ascertaining that the task has been performed. He could personally supervise its performance, but limited time makes this impractical; that is why he has a sergeant. He must, therefore, discover by other means that the task has been accomplished. He will watch for reports that may indicate lack of attention and he will make sample inspections to learn whether the regulation is being enforced. This inspection is essential if the sergeant is to be held responsible for the authority granted him. The captain has recourse to the same inspectional procedures to determine that the lieutenant is holding his sergeant responsible. Inspection is essential at each level of authority to know that the job has been done.

Assistance Needed in Inspection. When there is no inspection, subordinates are not held accountable, and the fundamental administrative principle that authority must not be delegated without holding the user responsible is violated. Owing to limitations of time and the pressure of other duties on higher officers, inspections by sampling become less frequent and intensive at each ascending level. The chief and the other higher officers in the command group of a large department frequently find that they have little available time to conduct sample inspections. Under these conditions, administrative assistance must be provided to assure the accomplishment of this important task.

Staff Inspection. Staff inspections are made for superior officers by someone who has no direct control over the subject of the inspection. This process is sometimes called functional supervision because it is a supervision of the function or task and not of the man.² Information received through staff inspections is usually more reliable because it is less likely to be biased than information received from a person responsible for the condition being reported. Staff inspections are especially useful when officers in direct control of operating personnel lack the necessary technical knowledge, interest, or time to supervise and control an operation by authoritative inspection.

Functional supervision is discussed in *Municipal Police Administration*, 3rd rev. ed.

Staff Inspections of Technical Operations. Superior officers who lack the necessary technical knowledge should not be entrusted with the supervision and direction of the performance of tasks that require special skills by personnel within their units. For example, the search for, preservation, and transportation of physical evidence, photography at crime and accident scenes, fingerprinting and photographing prisoners, records duties, radio and motor-vehicle maintenance, and the diagnosis of juvenile offenders and accident hazards are technical or semitechnical tasks that usually require skills beyond the experience and training of superior officers outside the special divisions. Inspections of tasks requiring technical or special skills should be made by qualified persons. Those who are in direct control of the members engaged upon these tasks often do not have the necessary qualifications.

Indifference or Opposition Creates Need for Staff Inspection. All divisions have a tendency to neglect tasks that are the primary responsibility of a special division. If the operating plan assigns tasks to an already overtaxed unit with a quite different function, unsympathetic supervising and command officers may consign it to the limbo of good intentions where so many police plans go. Staff inspections, therefore, are needed of some tasks that do not require special skills but which are apt to be neglected by the officers in charge of the operating personnel.

Lack of Time Necessitates Staff Inspection. Lack of time on the part of superior officers, including the chief, may necessitate some inspectional assistance. The most common example is the inspection of reports and records by the follow-up officer, who thus serves as an inspection aide to each superior officer.³ Similar inspection may be made by the service units of a department; a maintenance unit, for example, may report evidence of the violation of regulations relating to the use of equipment.

Staff Inspection by Operating Personnel. Since the division that develops an operational plan is responsible for its objective, interested in its purpose, and qualified to direct it, this division is the logical one to inspect its operation. For example, to assure the successful operation of a traffic-control plan, the traffic division must inspect the work done by men of other divisions in so far as that work is a part of the plan. Likewise, if the detective division is to clear cases by arrest effectively, it must ascertain by staff inspection whether prescribed procedures for the preliminary investigation of crimes are being followed by patrolmen. Similarly, the vice and juvenile divisions must inspect the performance of routine tasks in these fields by patrolmen, and the records unit must

inspect the records work performed by any member of the department.

The indirect control thus provided is vital to the success of special operations. Seldom is the need so great, the plan so excellent, and the *esprit de corps* so good that the operation will continue to move forward under its own power. To survive and serve a useful purpose, the mainspring must be wound regularly and adjustments made by someone who understands and is responsible for and enthusiastically interested in the operation of the plan.

Relationships in Staff Inspections. A suitable relationship between operations personnel and those engaged in staff inspections is vital to the success of the supervision. The relationship is a delicate one, and desirable results are obtained only when it is worked out to the satisfaction of all concerned.⁴

Since the officer who makes a staff inspection lacks direct control over the subject of his inspection, what is he to do when he discovers an unsatisfactory condition? In order to effect correction, someone must call the matter to the attention of the officer at fault. A too literal interpretation of the principle of unity of command may lead to the conclusion that the officer engaged in staff inspections should be restricted to reporting the matter through official channels to the superior officer who has command of both the operating and inspecting officers. In all but the large departments, this procedure would necessitate reporting nearly all matters to the chief of police and consequently would defeat an important purpose of staff inspections. The evils of unnecessarily delaying corrective action and the desirability of lessening the routine duties of commanding officers justify cutting across the lines of direct authority when this may be done without jeopardy to harmonious working relationships.⁵ The lines can be successfully cut across only by friendly discussion—not by command. The level at which this can be done without friction is influenced by the personalities involved, their willingness to give and take, and the *esprit de corps* of the organization.

The success of staff inspections depends on harmonious relations that make unnecessary the reference of all matters to higher levels for adjustment. Operating personnel should be instructed in the true character of staff inspection and should recognize it as a service rather than a device for catching them in a dereliction of duty. When all members of

⁴ The staff-inspection relationship between the follow-up officer and the laboratory technician, on the one hand, and the personnel with whom they deal, on the other, are discussed in Chaps. 13 and 15.

⁵ For example, the follow-up officer cuts across the lines of authority by reporting matters directly to the immediate superior of the officer involved. (*Police Records*, p. 100.)

the force understand the purpose and character of staff inspection, it can be used to the fullest extent to relieve commanding officers of heavy burdens.

INSPECTION BY THE CHIEF

The head of the department must keep himself informed on conditions that vitally affect successful police operations. In all but the small departments he must have assistance to ascertain three conditions relating to his department and its tasks.

1. Conditions in the community relating to crime, vice, and public opinion. Is organized crime entrenched in his community? Have ex-convicts and other questionable characters received licenses to operate retail liquor establishments and to engage in other activities attractive to the criminal element? Are criminals flocking to his city; is it a hide-out for fugitives and a hangout for racketeers and other criminals? Are gambling and prostitution rampant, and is the city full of narcotic addicts and peddlers? What connections have the gamblers, the prostitutes, the narcotic peddlers, racketeers, and other criminals with the agencies engaged in the administration of criminal justice, including the members of his own force? What is the nature of the influence exerted by the press, the legislators, the politicians, and other individuals and groups in the city? Some of these facts are reflected in police records, but the chief must have firsthand information if he is to operate successfully.

2. The integrity of his force. Breaches of integrity are frequently related to vice and organized crime and may consequently be discovered when these conditions are investigated. The determination of the integrity of the force involves an investigation of personnel; it will not unnecessarily duplicate or interfere with investigations conducted as an essential part of the personnel administration program if it is restricted to investigations intended to discover and establish by evidence the existence of graft and moral turpitude in the department (see Chap. 21).

3. The operation of his force and the condition of personnel and matériel. Are department rules and regulations being observed and operating procedures followed; are operations executed as planned; are department procedures operating satisfactorily; is equipment adequate, in good condition, and properly used? Are morale-destroying influences at work; is training adequate; are public relations satisfactory; are personnel-administration procedures suitable? Is each organization unit operating satisfactorily; is any part of the police job being neglected?

Because of the differences between the techniques that must be used, separate personnel should be employed to discover conditions within the

city and the integrity of the force, on the one hand, and the quality of police operations and the condition of personnel and matériel, on the other. Undercover operations are required to check on crime conditions and the integrity of the force, while the facts about police administration may be established by open inspection.

Intelligence Unit. In all but small departments, the chief finds it difficult to ascertain vice and organized-crime conditions in his community and the integrity of his force except by using an intelligence unit working directly under him or under an assistant chief. In all but the very large departments and departments in which conditions are obviously unsatisfactory, one man with adequate undercover funds can provide intelligence service. In some cases the continuous operation of an intelligence unit is unnecessary; a periodic audit of conditions, requiring from 1 to 6 months and undertaken annually or biannually, may suffice. In such cases, an out-of-town investigator may prove more useful than a local police officer. Some police chiefs borrow an officer from a department in some distant city for this purpose.

The Head. The intelligence unit should be headed by a man in whom the chief has complete confidence. If for any reason it is impossible to secure this type of head, it is better not to have such a unit. Information in which he does not have confidence is of no value to the chief. The position should be established without regard to the civil service rank of the incumbent; it should carry a suitable salary and a provision permitting the chief to return the incumbent to his former rank when his usefulness becomes impaired (see Chap. 1). Because of the confidential nature of its work, it may be inadvisable to include this unit on the department organization chart.

Operations. The intelligence unit should operate secretly and in much the same manner as the vice division. It should be furnished the necessary number of carefully selected policemen and ample funds to permit the employment of qualified undercover investigators. Disbursement procedures should be established that will afford suitable safeguards both to the chief and to the members of the unit against charges of misuse of funds. The records system should include regular complaint sheets, investigation reports, and indexes.⁶

Reports. It is even more important that the chief be kept informed of the activities of this unit than of the operating divisions of the department. The delicate nature of the investigations makes imperative suitable caution in reporting to the chief, and he may prefer, pending

⁶The manner of operation of the vice division is discussed in Chap. 10. The forms and their use are discussed in Chap. 13 and in *Police Records*, pp. 144-146.

the completion of an investigation, to receive information orally during informal conferences, rather than in the form of formal reports, the safeguarding of which would require unusual precautions.

Organized Crime. The intelligence unit will be primarily concerned with organized crime. It is not the task of this unit to arrest persons guilty of participating in criminal activities but rather to furnish the chief with the necessary facts so that he may place them before the division responsible for their correction for suitable action—unless there is evidence that police personnel of that division may be involved in the criminal activities. The chief should not reveal the source of his information when discussing the situation with his operating personnel. He should invariably demand an explanation for their failure to discover the conditions reported and to take remedial action.

The intelligence unit is concerned with the nature of the criminal organization rather than with its individual criminal acts, and it should establish the identity of all persons who are involved in any way in the ramifications of its operations. Important persons in the community who have excellent reputations for civic virtue may be involved in the net of organized crime, and the chief should know who they are and the nature of their relationships with those engaged in illegal activities. Organization charts and indexes showing connections between the individuals involved are useful in guiding the work of the unit and in reporting facts to the chief.

Integrity of the Force. In the course of investigating persons engaged in organized crime, the intelligence unit may discover leads to members of the force that justify intensive investigation. Such discoveries should be reported immediately by the head of the unit directly to the chief so that he may be informed and prepared to take suitable action should evidence be uncovered definitely incriminating a member of his force. This preliminary information should not go to the chief in the form of a written report unless he especially desires it and has a suitable place to file it so that its contents may be kept secret.

The Police Inspector. The chief is better able to investigate the operations of his department and the condition of its personnel and matériel than to carry on the investigations described above. In very large departments, however, limitations of time may cause the chief to neglect this important duty except where the necessity of its performance is impressed upon him by circumstances that come to his attention in his daily routine. Annual and semiannual inspections diminish neglect somewhat, but they reveal conditions of the department on dress parade rather than under day-to-day working conditions. Sporadic inspections started

in good faith usually die a quiet and unnoticed death as a result of the pressure of other work.

Best results are obtained from continuous inspection of the operation of the force and of the condition of personnel and matériel, but the chief does not have time for this type of inspection except in the small department. Provision must therefore be made for an aide to carry on this task. Because of the open manner in which inspections are made, the person who performs this duty for the chief must have sufficient rank to command the respect of all members,⁷ and he should report directly to the chief or to an assistant chief. Since his primary duty is staff inspection, he should be given the title of inspector.⁸

Division of Inspection Duties. In departments having two or more inspectors, one should be designated the chief inspector. Duties of inspectors should ordinarily be divided territorially rather than by time or by the functions inspected. Justification is found in a large department, however, for the separation, for purposes of inspection, of centrally located administrative duties and auxiliary services; the inspection of the operating divisions is then divided territorially, the assigned inspectors being also responsible for the inspection of decentralized administrative tasks and auxiliary services performed within their inspectional areas. For example, the chief inspector (either by himself or with one or more inspectors, depending on the size of the department) may inspect such centrally performed operations as records, communications, jail, laboratory, personnel administration; public relations, budget and accounts, and over-all planning; the remaining inspectors would then be assigned territorially to inspect field and district station operations.

Inspectional duties should not be divided on a time basis. Platoons in both the territorial and functional units are integrated by the heads of their districts and divisions, and the inspector likewise should deal with the work of the district or of the functional unit as an integrated whole. He is more likely to do so when he has responsibility for inspecting the operation throughout the 24 hours.

Hours of Work. Because of the nature of their duties, the inspectors should have flexible working hours; they should select the hours for work each day that will prove the most productive. They should submit in advance weekly schedules showing the hours to be worked but should be expected to deviate from the schedule when conditions necessitate. They

⁷ The conditions and nature of the inspection and the relations with the members involved are quite different from those of the follow-up officer, who should not have rank.

⁸ The chief should make personal inspections when time permits even though he has an inspector.

should report matters as discovered that deserve present or future attention.

Appraisal of Intangibles. The police inspector will spend most of his time in personal inspections of persons, operations, and conditions regarding which he can in no other way receive reliable information. It is in the inspection of these less tangible things that he will render the greatest service to the chief.

Personal observation will enable him to ascertain the fidelity with which department procedures are being followed; to appraise the morale and attention to duty of the men, to evaluate public reactions to the police and their programs, and to determine the conditions on the streets and in headquarters and station houses at all hours of the day and night. He will not be restricted to what he can see; he will discuss their duties and their manner of performing them with subordinate and superior officers alike. In this way he will discover the competence of officers, the adequacy of training, and the suitability of department procedures, as well as the unmet personnel and equipment needs of the department.

The Police Inspector's Relationships. An important duty of the inspector is to report to the chief for corrective action unsatisfactory conditions that can be suitably disposed of in no other way. His primary duty, however, is to shield the chief from the impact of a great many unpleasant situations that otherwise would require his personal attention. The inspector performs this duty by preventive measures and by effecting corrections, wherever possible, without reference to the chief.

The inspector's relationship with the chief, best established by regularly scheduled conferences, is influenced by the extent the chief wishes to participate in the correction of unsatisfactory conditions. The inspector should not, in his desire to shield the chief, fail to reveal information of great importance and also information of less importance that he has reason to believe the chief might want. In order to establish a suitable relationship, the inspector must learn to know the type of information wanted by the chief and should err on the side of providing too much rather than too little information.

The inspector must establish a relationship with operating personnel that will enable him to deal frankly and directly with them, using persuasion, suggestion, and personal request rather than commands to correct irregularities without the assistance of higher authority. To establish this relationship, it is necessary that inspectional duties be performed by a police officer whose maturity, experience, morality, integrity, judgment, character, and personality win for him the respect and admiration of all members of the force. It is further promoted by an attitude of friendliness reflected in his demeanor, voice, facial expression, willingness to be

helpful, and interest in the welfare and personal problems of the members of the department.

The inspector must be circumspect in his relations with both commanding officers and subordinates in order to avoid friction. His findings and any resultant suggestions or requests made to subordinates should be reported punctiliously to the commanding officer with further suggestions. Care must be used in making suggestions and requests, especially to subordinates, to avoid creating an impression that they are commands.

Inspections by Line Officers. The work of the inspector is in no sense a substitute for either the authoritative or staff inspection previously described. This should be clearly understood by the line officers and by the inspector. The inspector should promote the inspectional process throughout the organization, and his activities should stimulate rather than retard inspections by other members of the force.

Line officers should make daily inspections of some things. For example, at the beginning of each tour of duty, sergeants should inspect uniforms and personal equipment, and operating personnel should inspect the jail and department-owned vehicles. They should call unsatisfactory conditions to the attention of their superior officers. A criminalist or laboratory technician should inspect the equipment of the special investigators daily (see Chaps. 7 and 15).

Officers of higher rank should periodically make a more thorough inspection of the same things. For example, the lieutenant should make a thorough jail inspection once each week, and the head of each division should make a thorough inspection of the arms, equipment, uniforms, and vehicles used by division members at least once every 3 months. The laboratory director likewise should inventory and inspect all laboratory equipment at least once each quarter.

Inspection Reports. The police inspector should rely heavily on reports submitted by operating personnel on these periodical inspections in order to lessen his own work load and to assure a more complete inspection. Suitably designed inspection reports, when correctly and accurately prepared, promptly submitted, and used according to wisely conceived procedures, reveal much essential information to the inspector; the need for additional inspectors is thus diminished. The inspector thus has available a greater amount of time for making the personal inspections of actions, persons, and things that require his attention. With a suitable system of inspection reports that he occasionally spot checks, he assures himself that conditions are satisfactory or discovers unsatisfactory conditions that require his personal attention.

Well-conceived inspection reports stimulate the interest and attention of operating personnel by forcing them (1) to make periodic inspections

that otherwise might be neglected and (2) to state that conditions are either satisfactory or unsatisfactory. For example, if a patrolman is required to submit a periodic report on the vice conditions on his beat, he will make greater effort to learn if such conditions exist. One of his principal tasks is to know the prevailing conditions on his beat, and failure to know is as much dereliction of duty as is failure to take action in the event he does know of unsatisfactory conditions. When he states that vice exists on his beat, then he is bound by department regulations already to have taken some action against it or to have reported it to the vice division (see Chap. 10). If he periodically reports that vice is present on his beat at a certain location and that he has reported the condition to the vice division, then the inspector must ascertain why the vice division has permitted the condition to continue.

One purpose of personal inspection by the inspector is to assure himself of the accuracy of the reports of operating personnel. Inaccuracies will arise from carelessness and indifference in inspection, in preparation of the report, or from deliberate misrepresentation of facts. Additional instructions for the person making the inspection and preparing the report and for his supervising officer should correct the former difficulty: removal from the force may be necessary to correct deliberate misrepresentation. Either of these actions, of course, would be initiated by order of the chief.

Inspection Procedures. Inspection procedures for the guidance of the inspector and operating personnel should be outlined in the same manner as procedures for all other police operations. When adequate inspection procedures have been established, the chief may, by assuring himself that they are being followed, be confident that his entire organization is operating as planned.

The purpose and nature of inspections are shown diagrammatically below, followed by the duties of the inspector in outline form.

PURPOSE AND NATURE OF INSPECTION

Purpose

To promote effectiveness and economy by the inspection of
Persons
Things
Procedures
Results
in order to reveal
Conditions
Situations
Actions

that adversely influence the success of police operations
because of weaknesses and failures in

Personnel

Matériel

Procedures

which indicate a need for modified or additional

Organization

Regulation

Procedure

Equipment

Headquarters facilities

Man power

Training

Direction

Leadership

Nature

Inspection is accomplished by interviews with
Members of the force

Persons involved in police incidents

The general public

and analysis of

Inspection reports

Police records

Police statistics

Police procedures

and observation of condition of

Police quarters

Jail

Public places

Equipment

Personnel

in order to ascertain whether

1. Department morale is satisfactory.
2. Morale-destroying influences are at work.
3. The attitudes, actions, reactions and accomplishments of members of the force are satisfactory.
4. Training, direction, and supervision are satisfactory.
5. Rules governing the care of the body are complied with.
6. The integrity of all members is above reproach.
7. The moral standards of the members are satisfactory.
8. Regulations concerning the maintenance and use of equipment and property are complied with.
9. Equipment and property require repair or replacement.
10. Impaired condition of equipment and property has resulted from improper use or inadequate maintenance.

11. Equipment and space are adequate.
12. Department procedures are suitable.
13. Department procedures are being followed.
14. Operations are carried out as planned.
15. Department resources are used to best advantage.
16. Department organization units are operating satisfactorily.
17. Any part of the police job is being neglected.
18. Community conditions affecting operations against crime and vice are satisfactory.
19. Public reaction to department policies, methods, and officials is satisfactory.
20. Persons and incidents are satisfactorily dealt with.

DUTIES OF THE POLICE INSPECTOR

As an agent of the chief of police, the police inspector will:

1. Conduct open inspection of personnel, matériel, procedures, and results of police operations.
2. Correct without reference to the chief such unsatisfactory conditions as he is able to remedy.
3. Inform the chief on
 - a. Action taken by the inspector.
 - b. Action desired of the chief.
4. Promote and stimulate supervision on the part of operating personnel by
 - a. Devising well-conceived inspection reports for their use that will require a positive statement that a condition is satisfactory or unsatisfactory.
 - b. Instructing supervisory personnel in
 - (1) The use of inspection reports.
 - (2) The nature of authoritative and staff inspections.
 - c. Spot checking on inspection reports.
5. Inspect and effect correction of conditions reported unsatisfactory.
6. Maintain satisfactory relationship with subordinate and commanding officers.
7. Focus his attention on task of appraising such intangibles as public relations, conditions in the community affecting police operations, and the morale of the men.

SPECIALIZATION IN PLANNING

Success in any undertaking is dependent on careful planning. Lack of a plan developed in advance jeopardizes the satisfactory completion of any project. To engage in battle without a plan of action usually ends disastrously. Whether the project is a campaign of fighting, selling, or vote getting, or the building of a house, an airplane, or a complicated mechanical device, success is usually based on careful planning. The more complicated the undertaking, the more factors involved, the more

persons needed in its development, obviously the greater the need for planning.

In spite of the general recognition of the necessity for planning, many police chiefs undertake to run their departments (or permit them to run themselves) without planning. They undertake to meet situations as they arise without preparation, relying on their operating personnel to deal with each problem as it confronts them. Failure to plan in police administration has the same disastrous results as in any other field. In a police department, such failure is usually evidence of a lack of professional knowledge regarding what should be planned and how the plans should be developed.

Types of Planning. Police plans relate to operations, over-all procedures, and management (see Chap. 25). Operational plans must be prepared to accomplish each of the primary police tasks. For example, patrol activities must be planned, the force must be distributed among the shifts and territorially among beats in proportion to the need for service, special details must be planned or cover plans developed to meet irregular needs, and so on. Likewise, in crime investigation and in traffic, juvenile, and vice control, campaigns must be planned and assignments made to assure the accomplishment of the police purpose in meeting both average and irregular needs. Each line division has a primary responsibility to plan operations in its field and also to execute the plans, either by its own personnel or, as a staff agency, by utilizing members of other divisions.

In contrast to operational plans, which fall within the sphere of responsibility of each of the operating divisions, there are some plans that affect all members of the department or members of all, or nearly all, of the line divisions. Procedures that relate to reporting, to dispatching, to raids, arrests, stopping suspicious persons, searching and transporting prisoners, and so on are examples. Finally, tasks of management must be planned; especially important are plans and procedures relating to personnel and matériel.

The Staff Planning Unit. In some departments, especially the larger ones and those in which little attention has been given to the development of plans, a unit is needed for staff planning to supplement planning by the operating units. The need for a staff planning unit and the extent to which it will participate in department planning will vary widely in accordance with the relative interest and competence in planning of the operating units and the extent to which suitable procedures have been adopted and stabilized. For example, in a department in which the operating personnel has been indifferent to the need for planning and where little or no planning has been done, a large planning task re-

mains. In contrast, in a department having unusually competent and interested operating personnel, the over-all planning job may have been completed except for day-to-day adjustments; the planning unit then does little more than supervise in a staff capacity the planning activities of operating personnel and determine whether plans are suitably recorded, disseminated, and used when occasion demands.

The staff planning unit is principally concerned with plans that affect over-all operations of the department, in contrast to operational plans. It assists the chief in his administrative duty of planning; it points out to operating personnel and to the chief the need for plans, urges their preparation, and usually participates in their development.

The planning unit should be under the control of an assistant chief in charge of administration in departments of suitable size, as shown in Chart V, Organization *B*. Otherwise it should be a part of the chief's office or closely connected to it, as shown in Chart VI.

Planning in Smaller Departments. Smaller departments and those that do not have such a large planning task may not need a staff planning unit. Planning must be done, however, regardless of the size of the department and interest and enthusiasm of operating personnel, and provision must be made for it to avoid neglect. Responsibility for staff planning in such departments may be given to an officer in addition to his other duties, the choice of officer being influenced by the size of the force, the amount of planning that must be done, and the relative competence and interest of the several staff and line officers. For example, in some departments the personnel officer may be designated, whereas in others the head of the patrol or records division may be given this task.

In departments of a size that does not justify the creation of specialized divisions for traffic, vice, and juvenile-crime control, thought must also be given to the desirability of operational planning in these fields. Experience has shown that the patrol division, engrossed in the more fundamental police tasks involved in repressing criminal activity, may give indifferent attention to the development of plans in these special fields and to the follow-up control so essential to their execution. To assure proper attention, the chief may assign, in a staff capacity, an officer to plan and inspect tasks in each of these fields. Usually this assignment will not occupy full time and may be given to some officer in command of a post that requires his attendance but not his full-time attention; for example, a platoon lieutenant in command of the early morning shift who, while available for emergencies and decisions on the disposition of suspects, is not completely occupied at these tasks and consequently has free time to devote to the staff planning and inspection of a traffic pro-

gram (see Chart X). In the same manner, other superior officers may be given this responsibility in the other special fields of activity, although they may have direct control over few, or none, of the personnel engaged in the execution of the tasks.

Total Resources of Department Essential in Planning. Planning cannot be successfully done in a vacuum. The planning process runs through the entire organization structure, is intimately tied up with operations, and cannot be isolated from them. The total resources of the department must be utilized; planning cannot be exclusively assigned to a single

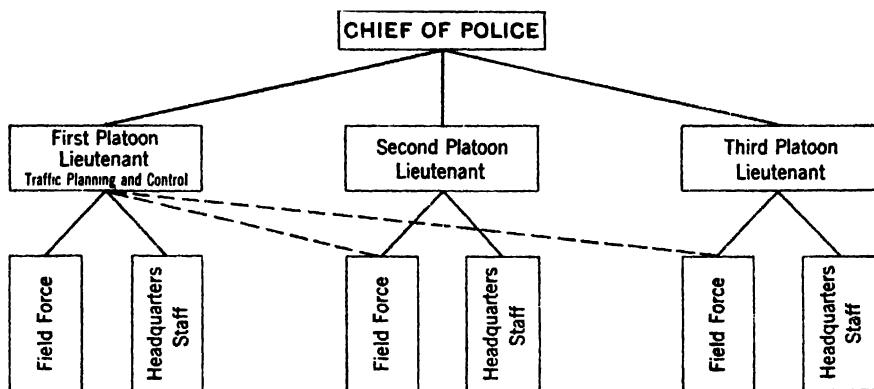


CHART X. Specialization in planning but not in execution. Lines of staff supervision are indicated by a broken line

individual or to a unit created for this special purpose. Planning must have the experience of the line officers, the facts of the statistician, the opinion of the analyst, the ideas of every member of the organization, and the counsel and advice of every division that may play a part in the execution of plans that are made.

Operating personnel should be used to the fullest extent possible in planning. The chief may designate individual officers or committees composed of several officers selected on the basis of their qualifications to prepare certain plans. This is especially desirable in developing tactical and procedural plans that are department-wide in application. One officer may be given the task of analyzing his job and recording his duties, and the result, studied by all or several officers who perform the same duties, may then be modified and adopted as a section of a duty manual.

Plans relating to personnel management should be prepared by the personnel officer (or with his assistance and guidance), but he must utilize the experience of the line officers in detecting needs and in estab-

lishing objectives and standards for selection, promotion, training, rating, discipline, and welfare, if the plan is to be satisfactory. Likewise, a chief clerk or accountant may develop and operate the mechanics of a budget, but present and future personnel, equipment, supply, and building needs can be identified and interpreted only in the light of the experience of operating personnel. Plans relating to purchasing and the development of specifications should be worked out by the department purchasing agent; records-division operations by the records-division staff, or under their guidance; special operating procedures by personnel engaged in the work to which they apply. The chief, in turn, needs the experience of the entire department in predicting the probable results of any proposed modification of organization or policy.

If plans are to work well, they must be considered practical and acceptable by those who use them. Participation by operating personnel in planning stimulates interest in the operation of the plan, assures understanding of its purpose and method, and promotes sympathetic support. Those who participate in the development of plans usually find them workable and sound.

Approval of Plans by the Chief. The administrative duty of rejection or approval is involved in planning. Matters of policy, plans involving difficult interdivisional and important public relationships, and important plans that are limited to the operation of a single unit must be approved by the head of the police department. The extent of the chief's participation in other planning will depend on the ability of the operating personnel to meet adequately the needs that arise. Such plans and their execution may never come to his attention.

In a well-organized and smoothly operating department, plans involving interdivisional relationships may be developed between the heads of the units involved without the chief's coordinating power. The operating personnel would seek the chief's approval of the plan only if they consider that its importance justifies official approval or that the chief would desire to approve it. The latter determination can be made only by officers well acquainted with the personality of the chief and thus able to judge what he is especially interested in, what he considers important, and the extent to which he wishes to delegate responsibility. They may, however, inform the chief of the plan when it is placed in operation simply to keep him informed. In less important plans, even this formality may be dispensed with.

The Inspection and Planning Unit. Attention has been previously directed to the fact that ascertaining needs is a purpose of inspection and a first step in planning; it has been pointed out that research and analysis

are common to both inspection and planning. There are, therefore, some advantages to combining both operations in one unit or under the control of one man, *i.e.*, the inspector.

Such combination affords some further advantages. It permits smaller departments to obtain greater specialization in planning and inspection by employing one highly qualified person to perform both functions. Further, when combined, each process stimulates the other—the person or unit that develops a plan or procedure is more interested in checking on its operation than is one that played no part in its development; likewise, the person or unit responsible for meeting a need is most apt to be diligent in searching for the need and best qualified to detect and appraise it. Finally, combining the planning and inspectional processes brings them both closer to operating personnel, thereby creating a better relationship than would otherwise prevail.

Chapter 5

PATROL: ANALYSIS

The treatment of police organization in the preceding chapters has been confined to broad principles and definitions of functions. The smooth and effective operation of a department, however, requires precise assignment of duties and responsibilities. Accurate definitions of the duties of each component unit are needed to establish the exact relationships between them, thus filling out the rough skeleton and delineating the true organization of the force.

The purpose of this and the next 10 chapters is to analyze the tasks of each major division, and to discover logical lines of demarcation and suitable relationships between the several units. The duties and operations of the patrol division, which is the largest and most important unit, are considered first.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PATROL

The core of the police purpose is to prevent unlawful acts. Crime and misconduct of any type under police control result from the co-existence of the desire to commit the misdeed and the belief that the opportunity to do so exists. If either factor is absent, criminal acts will not be committed. The presence of one factor alone, regardless of how strong it may be, will not result in crime. The elimination or reduction of these two factors, therefore, is a basic police duty. One task is to prevent or eradicate criminality in the individual; the other embraces all security measures designed to hamper or prevent criminal operations.

The desire to misbehave may, to some extent, be prevented by the removal or suppression of unwholesome influences. The police may not hope to eliminate all desire to misbehave, however; for as long as people are human, they will have selfish desires which, when the opportunity is presented, will sometimes cause them to commit crimes against persons and property, create disturbances, or violate regulations intended to ensure peace, comfort, convenience, and security. Likewise, the police cannot develop sufficient strength or efficiency to eliminate all opportunity for misconduct. The actual physical removal of the opportunity,

however, is not always necessary; it is sufficient to eliminate the potential offender's belief that the opportunity for successful misconduct exists.

The Primary Purpose of Patrol. The elimination of the actual opportunity, or the belief in the opportunity, for successful misconduct is the basic purpose of patrol. A thief's desire to steal is not diminished by the presence of a patrolman, but the opportunity for successful theft is. Likewise, the desire to steal is not diminished by the expectation of apprehension, but the potential offender's belief in the opportunity for successful theft is. The effectiveness of patrol is in proportion to its success in intensifying the potential offender's expectation of apprehension.

The apparent likelihood of arrest influences the degree to which the potential offender is convinced that the opportunity for successful misconduct is absent. Patrol provides this favorable influence more completely than any other branch of police service. An impression of omnipresence is created by frequent and conspicuous patrol at every hour and in all sections of the community. Suitable patrol succeeds in effecting immediate apprehensions, and since nothing succeeds like success, a reputation for quick and certain apprehension is spread by press, radio, and word of mouth. The potential offender is thus convinced without the necessity of personal experience that the patrol is invulnerable.

Indispensability of Patrol. Patrol is an indispensable service that plays a leading role in the accomplishment of the police purpose. It is the only form of police service that directly attempts to eliminate opportunity for misconduct; it also checks the development of desire for misconduct by destroying unwholesome influences, by actively creating wholesome ones, and by favorably influencing individual and group attitudes in its routine daily associations with the public.

In so far as patrol fails to eliminate desire and belief in opportunity, misconduct results. Patrol is then immediately available to investigate offenses, apprehend offenders, and recover stolen property. Constant availability is important because time is the essence of most police work.

In addition to performing duties relating to incidents of misconduct, the complete coverage provided by patrol makes it available for other services. The patrolman searches for and returns lost persons and property and informs and assists citizens. He serves as the eyes and ears of the police department by gathering information useful to the administrator, to the special branches of police service, and to other city departments.

Patrolmen should be practical social workers and encourage persons to come to them for assistance and advice when in trouble. Distress situations are frequently symptoms of deep-rooted social ills that, if not corrected, may result in criminal or other antisocial conduct and thus

adversely affect the remainder of the life of the individual. By giving assistance, advice, and sympathy to those in distress, patrolmen help prevent wasted lives and also win friendship and cooperation for the department.

The Patrolman, a Roving City Representative. The patrolman is the ultimate in the decentralization of municipal service. He is a roving city-hall information and complaint counter for the distressed citizen, disgruntled by the inconvenience of trips to the city hall, unsatisfactory telephone calls, and sometimes apparent lack of attention to his complaints. The constant availability and mobility of the patrolman make his services useful to other city departments, and he improves both public and interdepartment relationships by attending more immediately to citizen needs. The extent that patrol officers will provide extrapolicing services is determined by the chief executive of the city and his department heads.

Services which the police may perform for other departments include searching for and eliminating fire and health hazards, such as accumulations of trash, weed-covered lots, garbage unsanitarily housed, foodstuffs unhygienically displayed for sale; discovering and reporting street lights not burning and broken water mains; checking on building permits and occupation licenses, observing and reporting safety hazards for which other departments have some responsibility, such as defective sidewalks and streets.

Most services for other departments are performed in the course of routine patrol, the officer thus being continuously available for emergency use. The demand for these services usually is not urgent, and the tasks may be performed at slack moments when the need for more important police service is not immediate. Their performance aids in the accomplishment of the primary police tasks by causing the officers to circulate more actively. Their performance entails little, if any, added cost to police operation. When these services occupy such an amount of the patrolman's time as to result in a serious neglect of duty, however, the point of specialization has been reached, and the tasks should be performed by the city department primarily responsible.

THE EXTENT OF PATROL PARTICIPATION

During the past 50 years, police tasks have become increasingly numerous and complex, and failures in the satisfactory accomplishment of the police purpose have been correspondingly aggravated. The complexity of tasks has necessitated some specialization, and each step in

this direction has been away from the original concept of the accomplishment of all police tasks by patrol.

The trend toward specialization raises questions which deserve attention. Are the American police on the point of discontinuing patrol? Has patrol outlived its usefulness? Is it likely that police service generally will become as highly specialized as it is in some departments, where no tasks remain for patrol except the watchman's job of inspecting store doors and windows?

When the essential character of patrol service is understood, it is apparent that the patrol force is the backbone of any police department. It is the only branch of police service that is practically without limit in responsibility; only as the patrol division is unable to perform the total police task is there need for special units. Patrol service is indispensable and will continue to be the most important single division of the police department.

Specialization Limited to Need. Although patrol is essential to effective police service, some specialization also is essential, and present evidence indicates a continuance of the marked trend of the past two decades toward specialization. Police man power is limited, and increased specialization usually results in a diminished patrol. Not only are men drawn from patrol, but generally the most competent are taken in the creation of specialized units. In some instances such action may be desirable, but the indiscriminate transfer of the most capable personnel from patrol to special units jeopardizes effective patrol service.

Influences toward specialization, and the resultant dissipation of the patrol force, are found outside as well as within the department. Local safety councils and public-safety committees of civic organizations interested in traffic control, reformers and church groups interested in the suppression of vice activities, and socially minded citizens interested in the welfare of youth, actively crusade for special branches of the service.

Businessmen exert influences that affect patrol strength, not always by the actual withdrawal of man power from patrol, but by a demand for services, some of them quasi- or nonpolice in character, that require so much patrol time as to diminish its total effectiveness. Parking regulations, usually adopted at the insistence of retail merchants, may withdraw man power from patrol service out of proportion to actual need. Department-store proprietors may exert pressure for special services, such as store details that make unnecessary private detectives hired and paid for by the individual merchant. Industrialists, theater managers, and other businessmen may demand that the police transfer their cash, or provide a guard during the transfer, or be at the place of business dur-

ing certain times of the day when the presence or the handling of cash creates a hazard. Many other similar demands are made.

Cooperation should be given businessmen up to the point where such services impede rather than aid in the accomplishment of the police purpose. The patrolman is thus able to enlighten the public regarding the police philosophy of service and, through this personal contact, to build the good public relations that are so necessary to the attainment of police objectives. The police, however, should not compete with private concerns in providing such services as the transfer of cash to a small number of merchants. They should check the security of store doors and windows, nevertheless, because this is a part of the basic police task of eliminating opportunity and it is a service rendered to all commercial establishments. The police should make these security checks even though private firms may provide watchman service on a fee basis. Regular services to the merchant, such as switching on and off the lights in show windows and other parts of the business property, should not be performed by patrolmen. Such tasks are not performed for all business houses, and since they require a schedule that may interfere with ordinary police duties, they should be performed by private watchmen.

Patrol, the Backbone of Police Service. The patrol division is the largest police division and is responsible for the performance of all primary police tasks. It provides complete coverage of the city and command at headquarters at every hour of the day and night. The patrol division may take immediate action in the absence of members from a special division, and, during certain hours, the patrol command may supervise, in the manner previously described, the records and jail staffs and the dispatchers, regardless of the division to which they may be regularly assigned (see Chap. 3).

Policing should be considered a patrol service with specialized activities developed as aids. The patrol division is the nucleus of the department, about which the special services are grouped; it should not be subordinated to any other police unit. A department organized on any other basis is unwisely conceived and will not provide the well-rounded program essential to the accomplishment of the total police purpose.

Patrol Strength. The proportional strength of the patrol division and the special branches will depend on the services performed by each.¹ Patrol is responsible for the accomplishment of the total police job, and in small departments having no specialization, it actually performs all police tasks. When a special division is created, it must be decided which

¹ Estimation of the number of men needed to provide a satisfactory patrol service is discussed on pp. 108-109 and the Appendix.

tasks to take from patrol to be made the exclusive responsibility of the special unit, which tasks are to remain the exclusive responsibility of patrol, and which to assign as a joint responsibility. If patrolmen are not to be reduced to the status of night watchmen they must be given substantial responsibilities and commensurate authority. They should be permitted to make decisions and initiate action under supervision; they should be required to inspect questionable establishments on their beats and perform other duties for the special divisions.

As the tasks of special units are increased, additional personnel must be assigned for their performance, and the added personnel is almost invariably procured from the patrol force, thus depleting its strength. On the other hand, the more duties assigned the patrol division, the larger the patrol force, because there is then less need for personnel to man special units.

The flexibility of patrol permits the performance of many diverse tasks that are specialized in character. The importance of maintaining the strength of the patrol division makes it desirable to assign to it all tasks which may be performed as effectively by patrolmen as by specialists and which do not interfere with regular patrol duties. The advantages of a strong patrol even outweigh the disadvantages of slightly inferior performance; more patrolmen are then available for emergency, and the more active and widespread the patrol, the more apparent is their presence, thus promoting the impression of omnipresence.

Determination of the optimum proportional patrol strength also involves discovering whether the special branches of service relieve patrol of an amount of work proportionate to the strength withdrawn from the patrol force. While some specialization is desirable, it should not go beyond the point of diminishing returns; a balance must be reached between patrol and special operations. There is no formula which may be used to determine exactly the optimum proportional strength of the patrol and special divisions. In making each decision, the benefits of specialization must be weighed against the disadvantages (see Chap. 2).

Dangers of Specialization in Execution. As explained in the previous chapter, the need for specialization in planning and inspection in each field of police activity becomes evident in departments of relatively small size. It is met (1) in the small department by the assignment of these tasks to a line officer in addition to his usual duties and (2) in larger departments by the creation of a special unit for the purpose. Dangerous depletion of the patrol force does not result from specialization for planning and inspection; such specialization is nearly always essential to assure suitable attention to the accomplishment of each of the primary police tasks.

Most of the evils of specialization are found in the performance by specialists of tasks that should be performed by patrolmen in the course of their regular patrol. Patrol may profitably render many services to the special branches of the service. For example, following the creation of a traffic division, primary responsibility for the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations should remain with the patrol division and not be turned over to a squad of traffic officers. In spite of the existence of a detective division, the preliminary investigation² of crimes should be the exclusive responsibility of the patrol division. Even though a juvenile division is created, each patrolman should be charged with the correction of conditions on his beat that induce delinquency and with the performance of designated tasks in the field of juvenile-crime control referred to him by the juvenile division. The creation of a vice division should not relieve the patrolman of responsibility for vice conditions on his beat; both the special unit and the patrol division should be responsible for the existence of any commercialized vice in the community. The joint action of the patrol division and special units is needed to secure suitable integration of the component units of the force and consequently the most effective operation.

Performance by Patrol vs. Special Division. Policy decision must be made as to the extent that patrol will participate in the performance of all tasks in the fields covered by special units. When the importance of a special task is evaluated differently by the patrol division and the special division, the effort spent by patrol in its performance is likely to be less than the specialists think it should be. The true importance usually lies somewhere between these two diverse evaluations; its determination is an important step in providing well-rounded police service. As the range between the evaluations is diminished, the advantages of the performance of tasks by the members of the special divisions are lessened.

Reconciliation of differences of opinion is a task of leadership to be accomplished by indoctrination. An understanding of the purpose and nature of the operation by all who are engaged in its accomplishment, a more complete unification of all branches of the service, an improved *esprit de corps*, and effective supervision tend to eliminate these differences. Staff supervision by the special unit, as described in the previous chapter, may be used to bring about satisfactory performance of special tasks by the patrol division.

One of the disadvantages in the use of specialists to perform tasks at the level of actual execution is the difficulty of providing at all hours the necessary supervision by officers to whom the specialists are respon-

² Preliminary investigation is defined on p. 116.

sible. For this reason, in some instances, the service is better provided by specialization in the patrol division than by the special division itself (see Chap. 3). For example, when the amount of special work is sufficient, it is often desirable to assign one or more patrolmen to devote full time to its performance; and if its performance would interfere with regular patrol duties, it becomes essential to do so.

Specialized Patrols. In highly specialized departments, there are sometimes overlapping patrols of the traffic, detective, and juvenile divisions that rob the patrol division of corresponding man power. However, since this man power is used to provide a basic police service, in theory, at least, it matters not which unit performs the task so long as it is effectively accomplished. Consequently, the question resolves itself to this: May routine patrol service be more effectively provided by the special units than by the patrol division? The same question must also be answered in reference to inspectional services and called-for services (see page 92).

The patrol function, which is essential in the performance of some of the tasks of each special unit, should with few exceptions be provided by the patrol division. Patrol by special divisions has limited value because officers so engaged are not alert for conditions outside the field of their special interest that need police attention. Observing such conditions, they are prone to ignore them, and when citizens call them to their attention, they frequently refer them to another division. Difficulties in the direction and control of a specialized patrol further limit its use. The dispatcher has greater difficulty in keeping track of officers engaged in special work than of the regular patrolmen, and he cannot rely upon them in emergencies because they are not regularly available. The overlapping of special patrols results in less intensive patrol because of the larger territory each officer must cover. An intensive general patrol in a small beat has advantages over a more specialized patrol in a larger area.

Specialized patrol and inspection, however, make possible some desirable variation in techniques and procedures. For example, if the performance of the task is facilitated by plain clothes, by the use of an automobile not conspicuously marked, or by the use of techniques and attitudes not likely to be developed among patrolmen, a special patrol offers some advantages. These needs, however, are usually not frequent enough to justify a continuous special patrol.

Friction between Divisions. Special divisions sometimes resist activities by patrol in their field of operation. Influenced by a desire to maintain complete and exclusive control over its operations, the special unit is prone to insist that activities of the patrol division in its field

interfere with plans and effective operation. This becomes apparent, for example, in the field of vice control when an arrest by a patrolman seems to upset carefully laid plans to obtain evidence against higher-ups on which the vice division may have been working for months. Detectives sometimes have similar complaints. While there are instances of serious interferences by poorly timed or ill-advised action on the part of patrolmen, dangers of this character are greatly overemphasized as are the actual mistakes made by patrolmen. Special divisions, impressed with the desirability of "doing a task yourself if you want it properly done," are overcritical of the efforts of patrolmen; unusual incidents are sometimes exaggerated to cover their own shortcomings and failures. The special divisions are created to help the patrolmen do the total police job and to perform tasks that interfere with regular patrol duties or that may be performed better by the specialist. To relieve the patrolman of his basic responsibilities would lessen his effectiveness. The aggregate good that comes from patrol participation in the fields of vice control and crime investigation greatly outweighs the evils that arise from infrequent interferences and mistakes.

Other Problems Related to Special Divisions. In an organization that follows sound administrative practices, the relationships between the component units are clearly and precisely established by exact definitions of the duties of each. The extent of patrol participation in the operations of the special branches of service is wisely established by selection of the tasks in the specialized fields which may be most satisfactorily performed by patrol. Regulations should establish, therefore, the types of cases to be reported directly to special units for purposes of immediate action and the responsibility of the patrol division in dealing with various types of incidents which are subsequently handled by special divisions. It is especially important to anticipate the human tendency to avoid responsibilities; regulations and supervision must assure that suitable disposition is made of all incidents that come to the attention of the specialists and that other members of the department do not conclude that the creation of a special division relieves them of responsibility in the special field.

The police chief is concerned with the organization and staffing of each division. Decisions must be reached regarding the number of men to be assigned to each, their ranks, hours they are to work, and whether they should work singly or in pairs. Almost all operations of a special division require the planning and inspection of tasks performed by members both inside and outside the special division, as well as the direction of the specialists and their coordination with the other members of the department.

An executive, in establishing the relationships mentioned above, should not discount too heavily the competence of his patrolmen and their ability to carry a heavy load. It is better to use men up to the limit of their capacity than to relieve them of tasks which they are able to perform on the ground that skills are required beyond their competence or that time is not available from their regular patrol duties.

ANALYSIS OF PATROL

The need for police service arises from police hazards. Any situation that may induce an incident calling for some police action is a police hazard. Police hazards may result in crimes, minor violations, traffic accidents and congestion, lost persons and property, and other incidents that require police attention. They may, therefore, be divided into crime, accident, and congestion hazards and hazards that call for miscellaneous police services, such as lost-and-found persons and property, suicides, and so on. Persons and property both play a part in the creation of hazards, but the line of distinction between persons and things is not clear-cut.

August Vollmer has made the following classification of crime hazards:³

<i>Persons</i>	<i>Property</i>
Criminals	Unoccupied dwellings
Migrants	Warehouses
Perverts	Fraternity and sorority houses
Inverts	Safes
Alcoholics	Automobiles
Addicts	Buildings under construction
Prostitutes	Gas stations
Gamblers	Banks
Pimps	Business places where:
Drug peddlers	1. Insurance companies prohibit open stock risks
Saloonkeepers	2. Open stock risks are prohibited without alarm systems
Pawnbrokers	3. Open stock risks must be referred to the home office
Secondhand dealers	4. Local experience shows they are hazardous
Feeble-minded	
Insane	
Agitators	
Fanatics	
Subversive agents	
Juvenile delinquents	
Problem children	
Solicitors	
Peddlers	
Taxi dancers.	

³ The classification was taken from his lecture notes.

<i>Places</i>	<i>Situational</i>
Main arteries:	Athletic events
Railroad	Political meetings
Automobile	Parades
Pedestrian	Conventions
Shipping docks	Radical meetings
Ferry landings	Radical conflicts
Rendezvous or residence of individuals listed under Persons	Celebrations
Railroad stations	Disasters
Cheap boarding- and lodginghouses	
Radical headquarters	
Saloons	
Gambling places	
Pool halls	
Amusement parks	
Pawnshops	
Secondhand stores	
Transitional areas	
Foreign-born areas	
Negro areas	
Streets in vicinity of theaters	
Houses of prostitution	

Hazard Factors. There are five factors that create hazards. (1) Deficient visibility, resulting from inadequate illumination or view obstruction, may create both crime and accident hazards. For example, if safes are not located and illuminated so that passing patrolmen may easily see them, a crime hazard is created. (2) The insecurity of premises and other property, created by the absence of suitable locks, bars, and gratings, is an important crime hazard. (3) The presence or condition of things creates hazards. A lake or stream of water, poorly designed roadways, defects or obstructions in public spaces are all accident hazards. Similarly, the presence of combustibles is a fire hazard. Nonidentifiable goods of high value and small bulk are crime hazards. (4) The presence of people may be a hazard. A crowd offers opportunity for theft, the loss of persons or things, and fights and panics that may injure persons or damage property; it also constitutes a moral hazard in that an opportunity may be presented for violation of gambling, liquor, and sex laws. (5) Lack of regulation may be a hazard. Traffic laws are intended to prevent accidents and congestion, and miscellaneous regulations are designed to prevent quarrels and fights resulting from such factors as chickens in a neighbor's garden, vicious dogs at large, and unsightly conditions. Fire and accident hazards, created by such practices as accumulating trash, swimming in a river, or coasting on steep hills, may be lessened by regulation. Flashing a roll of money or otherwise per-

mitting cash-handling procedures to be known, failing to pull down window shades, leaving the garage door open, and allowing mail and handbills to accumulate as evidence of absence from home are examples of practices that create desire or advertise opportunity. These hazards may be reduced through public education.

Hazards may vary according to the hour of the day, the day of the week, and the season. They may be of high or low frequency, and of high or low value. Some create a desire and others present an opportunity to misbehave. Some hazards are temporary and some are permanent; some may be corrected or minimized by physical changes, regulation, or public education, others only by the presence of a policeman.

Knowledge of Beat Important in Patrol. Prevention, in the broadest sense, is the process of eliminating hazards or diminishing their effectiveness. A patrolman's beat is composed of persons and things that may be either hazards or, instead, facilities that aid in the disposition of the resultant incidents. Knowledge of hazards and facilities, therefore, is essential to the successful performance of patrol duty.

The distribution of the force and the direction of the effort of individual patrolmen should be based on an evaluation of potency (in terms of opportunity and desire), frequency, seriousness, location, and time of hazards. A knowledge of conditions that constitute hazards, as well as incidents that result from them, is essential to effective patrol. Hazards may be localized in time and place by reference to the incidents they have caused, and the degree of hazard may be evaluated in terms of frequency of incidents in proportion to exposure and the average loss or other measure of the seriousness of the resultant incidents. For example, the relative burglary hazard of each type of retail store is indicated by the property loss and the number of burglary attacks in proportion to the number of establishments in each class. Records, therefore, aid in detecting and evaluating hazards, in ascertaining conditions that constitute hazards, and in the direction of attention to them.

Facilities on the beat or in the community may aid in the disposition of incidents that result from hazards. The patrolman, therefore, should know his beat and community geography and have information sources that may assist him. Personal contacts with residents, businessmen, and proprietors or employees of business houses frequented by persons of questionable character are information sources that the officer should develop. He should also know sources of readily obtainable emergency equipment, such as wreckers, air pumps, diving equipment, armored cars, and boats.

Patrol Operations. The purpose of patrol is to achieve police objectives through the action of officers moving about within prescribed areas.

Their tasks may be divided into three classes, *viz.*, services called for, inspectional services, and routine patrol.

1. Services called for are the police actions taken in dealing with incidents. The remaining two categories are primarily preventive and deal with conditions rather than incidents. Incidents requiring police action may be reported by a victim or witness, or they may be discovered by a patrolman or another member of the force. Services called for include the disposition of violations in every field of police control by warning, citation, or arrest; the investigation and disposition of miscellaneous complaints; the investigation of accidents; the preliminary investigation of crimes; the recovery of stolen property; searching for, interviewing, and investigating suspects and witnesses; the arrest of criminals, both with and without warrants; the raiding of criminal hide-outs and vice establishments; spot jobs; intensive searches of public garages, parking lots, and streets for stolen automobiles and for automobiles involved in hit-and-run accidents and other crimes; the intensive checking of commercial establishments and the interviewing of persons residing in an area or in the entire community in search of witnesses and information useful in the investigation of a crime.

2. Inspection services are directed at lessening the potency of identifiable hazards. These services include the routine examination of the doors and windows of business premises and vacation homes likely to be burglarized; the inspection of public garages, where stolen automobiles may be stored or temporarily parked; and the inspection and supervision of places under license, of questionable establishments such as taverns, bars, and cocktail lounges, and of parks, pool halls, skating rinks, dance halls, and other recreational places.

3. Routine patrol includes all patrol operations not included in the first two classes and is directed primarily at diminishing less tangible hazards that are not readily isolated and identified. Areas that contain less tangible hazards include business sections, poorly illuminated areas, poverty-stricken tenement districts, locations where large numbers of people congregate, roadways carrying heavy traffic, and districts containing cheap amusement resorts or currently experiencing a more than usual amount of crime. The officer lessens opportunity for misconduct by the observation and supervision of persons and things during his routine movement from one point to another on his beat, especially when he gives particular attention to areas in which incidents calling for police service most frequently occur.

Chapter 6

PATROL: METHODS AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

If patrol is to accomplish its basic purpose, decisions must be made as to whether officers will be most effective on foot or with a vehicle in the different sections of the community and during the various shifts. Patrol procedures and operating techniques must also be developed to assure maximum effectiveness and economy with minimum risk to the officer. A method of dispatching officers must be devised that will assure the safe and speedy accomplishment of their mission. The force must also be distributed in a manner to assure patrol service at all hours and in all sections of the community in proportion to need.

CHOICE OF PATROL METHOD

Responsibility for the performance of certain police tasks within an area is placed on an individual patrolman, and the accomplishment of his duty requires his movement from one point to another. A choice of patrol method must be made, based on the purpose of the patrol (whether primarily to provide called-for services or inspection or a routine patrol) and the conditions under which it is to be provided. A horse patrol was established in London prior to the organization of the London Metropolitan Police, and the use of horses has persisted to this day, although their use in general patrol in the United States has disappeared in municipal departments and is gradually being replaced by motor vehicles in state police organizations. Some municipal departments use horses in traffic and crowd control because the elevated position of the rider provides maximum opportunity for observation and because the animal is unequaled in the control of a crowd. Crowd control is the main justification for the continuance of horse patrol. Some departments maintain a boat patrol which likewise might not be justified were it not for the emergency value of this equipment with personnel trained in its operation. Some departments that maintain a summertime boat patrol on rivers substitute a patrol on skates during the winter months.

The method of transportation should be provided which will enable the most effective and economical accomplishment of the patrolman's tasks. Automobiles, motorcycles, and bicycles are most frequently used, and

choice must be based on an appraisal of the advantages and disadvantages of each for the primary purpose of the patrol and for the conditions (the characteristics of the beat or route) under which it is to be effected.

The purpose of the patrol may be the accomplishment of a special task, such as the enforcement of parking regulations, the escorting of parades and funeral corteges, the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations, the inspection of questionable establishments suspected of vice operations, or the inspection of parks, dance halls, skating rinks, and other places of recreation where minors may congregate. On the other hand, it may be a general patrol for the accomplishment of the total police purpose.

Factors that influence the choice of patrol method include the density, distribution, and character of police hazards and the frequency and nature of resultant action required of the patrolman; the size of the beat; the volume of pedestrian and vehicular traffic and the adequacy of its regulation by signs, signals, and markings; light conditions that depend on the time of day and the adequacy of illumination provided by street lights and lights maintained on private premises; the surface and condition of streets and sidewalks; the usual weather conditions during the various seasons; the racial characteristics and moral tone of the population; and the character of business establishments and residences.

Conditions that justify a certain method of patrol may vary with the presence of persons or things. Examples include intersection and crosswalks with heavy vehicular and pedestrian traffic and areas containing establishments in which originate a large number of incidents calling for police service. The conditions likewise may vary between day and night. In a business district, for example, there is need for trying store doors and windows at night but it ceases when the establishments reopen for business the following day.

The Automobile. The automobile has advantages over all other methods of transportation for general patrol under ordinary conditions. Rapid automobile transportation permits overtaking a fleeing motorist. It also provides an element of surprise because it enables an irregular and not easily predicted patrol. The officer in a car is more efficient than one on foot or on a bicycle because he is able to cover a larger area with less fatigue and to reach the scene of action more quickly and in better physical, mental, and emotional condition. An automobile can be operated under all weather and road conditions; it provides protection against inclement weather and thus lessens the time lost due to illness resulting from exposure. It permits carrying other officers, prisoners, extra clothing, a radio, riot gun, fire extinguisher, first-aid kit, and other equipment that make a mobile police station of the patrol car. The advantages of the automobile in the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations are so great

as to justify its use for this purpose to the exclusion of the two-wheeled motorcycle.

Foot Patrol. Foot patrol, however, has some advantages over all other methods. Maximum opportunity is provided for observation within range of the senses and for a close contact with people and things that enables the patrolman to provide a maximum service as an information source and counselor to the public and as the eyes and ears of the police department. A foot patrolman loses no time in alighting from a vehicle, and the performance of police tasks is not hampered by responsibility for his vehicle while afoot.

Foot patrol, however, does not enjoy many of the advantages of a patrol car. Lack of mobility and communication contact with headquarters lessens the emergency value of the officer and greatly reduces his ability to provide called-for services. The limited area that he can cover effectively makes this method of patrol costly.

Bicycle Patrol. Bicycles were used frequently for patrol before the advent of automobiles, and their use has been continued by some departments. A patrolman on a bicycle is able to patrol a larger area than a patrolman on foot, and when dispatched to the scene of action, he is able to cover a greater distance in a shorter period of time with less fatigue; the opportunity for observation and contact with people is only slightly less than on foot; its silent operation makes it especially useful at night. When compared with an automobile, however, the disadvantages of a bicycle are readily apparent.

The Solo Motorcycle. The two-wheeled motorcycle should not be employed in police service because of the great hazard to the rider and the excessive cost to the city. The hazard of solo motorcycle operation, as shown in Table 1, is sufficient to condemn its use, and fairness to the officer and his family forbids it. Its use not only endangers the life of the rider but sometimes permanently cripples him through accident or by injury to internal organs caused by the constant jar while riding.

The operating cost of the motorcycle greatly exceeds that of the automobile when there is added to its maintenance expense the cost of time lost due to injuries and the cost of keeping cripples on the payroll at relatively nonessential jobs or at tasks that could be performed better by suitably selected persons. Aside from the costliness of accidents, the operating cost of the motorcycle usually exceeds that of the automobile because of the salary differential nearly always provided motorcycle riders. Further, motorcycle officers usually are not most productively employed during inclement weather when they are unable to ride.

The automobile excels the two-wheeled motorcycle in all respects. Distinctive paint and markings make the automobile as conspicuous as the

TABLE 1. COMPARATIVE HAZARD OF TWO-WHEELED MOTORCYCLE AND AUTOMOBILE PATROL

Department	Man-days lost (motor- cycle acci- dents)	Motorcycle mileage	Miles per lost man- day	Man- days lost (auto acci- dents)	Auto mileage	Miles per lost man- day	Relative hazard (motor- cycle to auto)
Baltimore.....	679	410,227	607	12	298,798	24,890	40.9
Bridgeport ^a	33	62,750	1,904	29	362,449	12,520	6.6
Buffalo.....	98	207,481	2,190	43	1,925,522	44,820	20.5
Chicago.....	584	2,100,000	3,600	1,751	9,840,000	5,606	1.6
Denver ^b	163	198,466	1,217	363	2,164,258	5,960	4.9
Detroit.....	316	253,902	803	70	1,098,520	15,693	19.6
Evanston.....	46	41,280	898	5	306,256	61,251	68.2
Greenwich.....	92	30,000	326	30	480,000	16,000	49.1
Kansas City ^c	120	371,589	3,094	245	3,566,784	14,560	4.7
Lincoln.....	5	87,284	17,473	4	295,765	73,520	4.2
New Jersey State ^d	330	1,315,000	3,985	10	3,542,500	354,250	88.9
New York City ^e	1,172	1,959,300	1,672	573	12,654,000	22,084	13.3
Pasadena.....	19	282,851	14,880	7	579,946	82,740	5.6
Santa Monica ^f	18	114,239	2,380	4	369,819	92,300	34.6
Tucson.....	123	85,649	696	35	302,306	8,637	12.3
Washington, D.C.	208	763,447	3,674	56	2,698,932	48,180	13.1
Wichita ^g	161	176,794	1,079	16	801,594	50,096	46.6

motorcycle. Driving an automobile requires less attention than riding a motorcycle, and consequently the officer is better able to observe. The automobile also has greater maneuverability at high speeds. The greater maneuverability of the solo motorcycle in congested traffic and its greater acceleration potential are its principal advantages over the automobile, but circumstances that require these qualities are so infrequent that its use is not justified. Escort and parade duty and the regulation of unusually dense traffic may be accomplished by the three-wheeled motorcycle.

The Three-wheeled Motorcycle. The three-wheeled motorcycle has greater maneuverability in dense traffic than the automobile and it may be operated almost as successfully as an automobile on all road conditions. Its operation is less hazardous and requires less skill and atten-

tion than the operation of a solo motorcycle, and it can carry more supplies and equipment. However, it is not so suitable as the automobile for regular patrol because it does not protect the rider from inclement weather, its operation is more fatiguing and attention demanding, it lacks safe maneuverability at high speeds, and its top speed is otherwise limited.

The three-wheeled motorcycle is especially suited to checking time-limit and other parking regulations where tagging parked automobiles necessitates frequent dismounting. It may be parked without the operation of a stand and it is not easily knocked over. An officer on a three-wheeler supplied with a Duralumin chalk stick for marking tires is five to ten times more efficient in checking overtime parking than an officer on foot in either metered or unmetered zones.

Automobile vs. Foot Patrol. Relative cost must be considered in choosing between foot and automobile patrol. The cost of operating an automobile patrol unit is the salary of the patrolman plus the cost of transportation. Transportation increases the cost of operating a patrol unit from 12 to 20 per cent, the exact amount depending upon the salary rate and the degree of economy in automobile maintenance and operation. Automobile patrol effects a money saving, therefore, when it increases the effectiveness of a patrol unit by an amount greater than the proportional increase in the cost of its operation. Automobile patrol provides an increased efficiency considerably in excess of 20 per cent, except when automobile patrol is unsuited to the purpose of the patrol or to the peculiar conditions under which it must be provided.

Automobile patrol is the least expensive form of patrol for the reason that increased efficiency, coverage, and effectiveness permit a saving in man power that compensates for the cost of operating the vehicle. Foot patrol, because of its limitations, is the most expensive. First choice, therefore, should be given to automobile patrol wherever it can be used profitably; some other method of transportation is justified by unusual conditions, such as water, ice, or the requirement of silence, or by the desire to have available, for emergency use, equipment with operators skilled by constant practice. The choice between foot and automobile patrol must be based on the relative advantages of each method weighed in the setting of its primary purpose and under the conditions that prevail during its operation. The advantages of mobility during emergencies make desirable the motorization of as many patrolmen as possible.

Inspections May Necessitate Foot Patrol. Foot patrol is preferred when inspectional duties in a small area occupy the entire time of the patrolman. The small area makes motorized transportation from one duty to another unnecessary, and lack of time makes impossible any routine patrol. For example, the inspection of contiguous commercial

establishments may be impeded rather than aided by a vehicle. When the number of establishments is many, there may be no time left for routine patrol; and if calls for service are infrequent, they may be assigned to motorized officers; the activity of a foot patrolman may then be restricted to such inspectional duties as trying store doors and windows.

Frequency of Incidents May Necessitate Foot Patrol. The full time of an officer may be required to prevent and dispose of incidents that call for police service when a large number of them occur in a relatively small area. Conditions that justify a foot patrol under such circumstances are found in areas containing a large number of amusement resorts where the concentration of people requires continuous police attention. The character of the people, the nature of the establishments, and the extent of use of intoxicants influence the frequency of calls for service. For example, areas containing cheap amusement resorts and other questionable establishments may be the scenes of fights and disturbances that justify the continuous presence of an officer on foot.

Lack of Driving Ability May Necessitate Foot Patrol. One or more foot patrolmen may be justified in some communities because of the presence of officers disqualified to drive automobiles safely because of inexperience or physical defects.

Patrol in Business Section. When all officers are qualified automobile drivers, the proportion of the force that will be on foot patrol is influenced by the size of the business district requiring intensive inspectional services and its adaptability to division among motorized beats. A business section may sometimes be divided among several motorized beats that contain noncommercial areas, thus giving each motorized officer a portion of the congested area. This arrangement enables a more complete motorization of the patrol force and avoids subjecting a patrolman to the hardships of continuous foot patrol. It also provides some variety to the tasks of patrol and relieves fatigue, since the officer may alternate his time between foot patrol and automobile patrol of sections of his beat that do not require intensive inspectional services. In a large city, however, the wide expanse of area containing establishments that require inspectional duties may make this arrangement impractical, especially during the hours of greatest need for this service. A sound rule, however, is to avoid as far as possible the assignment of officers exclusively to foot patrol.

AUTOMOBILE PATROL

The automobile is undoubtedly the most effective and economical type of patrol when operated conspicuously by one man using superior patrol methods. To assure effective and safe operations, however, procedures

must be adopted for stopping suspicious cars and for dispatching patrolmen on calls.

Automobile Patrol Procedure. Automobile patrol has some disadvantages because, while driving, the patrolman has less opportunity for observation and for contact with citizens than when on foot, and consequently he is less useful in furnishing information to citizens and in serving as the eyes and ears of the department.

These disadvantages, however, may be lessened by the development of suitable procedures and by thorough training and adequate supervision in their use. Foot patrol must be considered basic because some action by the patrolman with his feet on the ground is required in the performance of nearly all patrol tasks. The motorized patrolman should perform all the duties of a foot patrolman and consequently should spend a large part of his time on foot; he should be considered a foot patrolman who is given a vehicle to transport him from one task to another, to bring him to the scene with greater speed and less fatigue, and to enable him to capture a fleeing criminal. The factors of protection against weather and relief from fatigue by occasional periods spent in driving from one location to another are to be used with discretion.

An overemphasis of the emergency character of automobile patrol indicates a fallacious interpretation of its true purpose. This frequently results in limiting automobile patrol to answering calls, without using it for regular patrol duties. The patrolman who remains in his vehicle hidden in a secluded spot when he is not driving over his beat is not giving the best police service. The officer who spends all his time driving neglects his duty to make inspections, to observe, make himself available for public service, and to make contacts with citizens.

Provision must be made for the patrolman to report off the air when absence from his vehicle makes him unavailable for radio dispatch, with suitable control to prevent too large a proportion of officers in adjacent areas being off the air at the same time. A call selector, by enabling the dispatcher to blow the horn or switch on a light on the top of the police car, materially extends the area within which the officer may patrol and still be available to radio summons.

The Conspicuous Patrol Car. For the same reasons that officers engaged in patrol are universally dressed in easily identifiable uniforms, automobiles used in patrol should be conspicuously designated as police vehicles by a paint of distinctive color and design, and by emblems and other inscriptions on the sides, front, and rear. The marking of the patrol car may be distinctive or conspicuous. Distinctively marked automobiles are readily identifiable as police vehicles at close range, as by the occupants of a car being stopped when the police automobile is beside

it, but they are not easily distinguishable from other vehicles when seen from front or rear or from a distance. Conspicuously marked patrol cars, on the other hand, are readily identified as police vehicles from every view and from some distance, even at night.

Patrol Apparently Intensified. Experience has demonstrated that conspicuously marked automobiles are better suited for patrol than unmarked cars. The merit of conspicuously marked automobiles in traffic control is conceded by all qualified police traffic experts. Similar advantages in the control of criminals seeking an opportunity to attack is claimed by most police administrators who have had experience with both types of patrol. The effectiveness of patrol in minimizing belief in the existence of opportunity for misconduct, which is the basic police task, is in proportion to the apparent or observed frequency of patrol. When uniformed officers are unobserved in unmarked patrol cars, regardless of the actual frequency of their patrol, there is no apparent patrol, and hence, no intimation is given of the presence of the police. Consequently, the patrol has little deterrent or preventive value. On the other hand, a patrol in conspicuous automobiles, being more readily observed, has a deterrent effect on criminals seeking opportunities to attack and on opportunists who violate regulations when they think the police are not around. Citizens are impressed with the extent and frequency of patrol, which they observe, and feel that the police are efficient and readily available in the event of need. The impression of police omnipresence created by conspicuous patrol thus satisfies the critical citizen, comforts the uneasy one, and deters the potential offender.

Police Car Identified. Unless police automobiles are conspicuously marked, citizens may mistake a police automobile for a bandit car and attempt to flee. The police may mistake the fleeing citizen for a felon and shoot at him; when finally stopped, such citizens, even though uninjured, consider themselves badly treated, especially when the police refuse to believe their story. The possible serious consequences of such incidents are practically eliminated by conspicuous markings. They also eliminate the argument used by some traffic violators that they were entrapped by being followed in an inconspicuous manner. The emergency character of the conspicuous car is also more easily recognized; the driver is thereby assisted in making urgent runs, and the accident hazard is diminished.

Offender Made More Submissive. The official authority represented by the conspicuously marked patrol car, like the police uniform, impresses the criminal and the minor offender and places them at a psychological disadvantage which makes them less likely to resist. A policeman is something more than a physical human being because he has the moral back-

ing and the complete resources of organized society to aid him in the execution of his duties. When the criminal or the minor offender sees a plain-clothes policeman as an ordinary man with no outward evidence of authority, he may be tempted to pit his wits and strength against the officer. The police uniform represents the majesty of the law and the authority of government. Clearly marked patrol cars impress with their evidence of authority and make easier the performance of many police tasks.

Supervision Simplified. The conspicuous patrol car, like the police uniform, aids in regulating the conduct of the policeman who uses it. A uniform on a man or conspicuous markings on a car attracts the attention of the public and makes conspicuous any neglect of duty or other violation of department rules. Patrolmen in conspicuously marked cars are less likely to neglect their duty by parking in secluded spots or by having friends ride with them; they are also less likely to drive carelessly or in a manner inconsiderate of the rights of pedestrians and other motorists. Patrol supervision, a difficult and important task under any circumstances, is also made easier by conspicuous patrol cars.

For the reasons enumerated above, patrol cars should be conspicuously marked.

One Man vs. Two Men in a Patrol Car. Patrolmen have operated on foot in this country for many years, and except in isolated and exceptional cases they have performed their services unaccompanied by a second officer. The advisability of this procedure is seldom questioned. A patrolman who is able to perform his duty satisfactorily while alone on foot should not find it necessary to have a brother officer accompany him when he is equipped with the most modern means of transportation and communication. Actually he works more efficiently, effectively, and safely when alone.

One-man patrol-car operation is more efficient than two-man because the number of patrol units is thus doubled and the city is divided into twice as many patrol areas as when officers ride in pairs. Consequently, the frequency of patrol is doubled, a police car gives twice the attention to a beat, and a police hazard is inspected with twice the frequency.

The officer patrolling alone also is more effective for the reason that he gives his undivided attention to police duties. Two officers together spend part of their time visiting, swapping stories, and neglecting their routine duties. Further, there is greater temptation for them to be involved in small delinquencies and infractions of the rules, because when one makes a suggestion that is slightly out of line, the other is inclined to fall into the spirit of the mischief so as to avoid being considered a spoilsport. The officer who made the suggestion may not have been com-

pletely serious at the time, but he is unable to back down gracefully when the other officer acquiesces.

An officer patrolling alone in a car is safer than when accompanied by a brother officer because of similar factors. The presence of a second man may cause each to fail to take suitable precautions in an emergency lest his action be interpreted as cowardice. Each also gives the other a sense of safety out of proportion to the added protection provided by the second man. When an officer is alone in a patrol car, he knows that he has no one else to rely upon in the event of emergency and consequently is cautious in stepping into dangerous situations. One patrolman in a two-way radio car is safer than a lone foot patrolman inspecting alleys and backdoors on his beat. Further, the factor of safety is increased by the use of one-man patrol cars. The number of available patrol units is doubled, and there are twice as many vehicles to be dispatched as an aid to an officer. They may approach the scene from twice as many directions, and the average distance they must travel is diminished.¹

Wherever patrol cars are used, one-man cars should be instituted, unless the conditions are such that it would be unwise for foot patrolmen to operate singly.

Technique for Stopping Suspicious Cars. When officers are placed alone in automobiles, the number of patrol cars should be increased in proportion, they should be equipped with two-way radio and suitable police lights (see Chap. 17), and the officers should be trained in the technique of stopping suspicious cars so as to lessen personal danger.²

¹ See O. W. Wilson, "One Man versus Two Men in Patrol Cars," *Public Management*, pp. 111-112, International City Managers' Association, Chicago.

During a 9-year period prior in Wichita, Kan., nine policemen lost their lives as the result of gunfire—an unusual record for a city of slightly over 100,000 population. In practically every case, the officer was one of a pair of officers. In only two incidents did the second officer succeed in apprehending or killing the assailant. In the 21 years since Wichita patrolmen have operated alone in cars (except during a 4-year period following a change in administration), and during this time only one policeman has been killed as the result of gunfire, and he was a foot patrolman killed in a rooming house.

² When the occupants of an automobile that an officer is about to stop are considered dangerous, he should attempt to stop them under a street light or near an open business house. The officer should drive beside the other car in such a position that the police light is opposite the other driver; he should avoid driving ahead of this position. He should make a preliminary survey of the car and occupants on the approach and stop.

In the daytime he should stop the police car approximately 3 feet from the side of the other car. He should get out of the right side of the police car, never taking his eyes off the occupants of the stopped car. He should stay between the two cars.

At night the officer should park the police car as close to the other car as possible, in the position described above, and he should get out of the left side of the police

Deployment of Patrolmen on Calls. Procedures should be developed by the command group and approved by the chief to guide the dispatcher in sending officers on calls that will assure (1) that a force will be sent which is adequate to meet the need and (2) that they will be deployed in such a manner as to increase the likelihood of apprehension of the criminal and decrease the hazard to the officers.³ The nature of the call will establish the number of officers and the manner in which they should be deployed to accomplish their mission most effectively.

Calls Not Requiring Pursuit. Only the beat officer need be sent on calls in which immediate capture or pursuit of a criminal is not required, except (1) when a crime or accident scene should be searched for physical evidence, in which case a special investigator should be dispatched for this purpose, (2) when there may be an attendant need for guarding premises, or controlling a crowd or diverting traffic, as at the scene of an accident or other incident that may cause traffic to be blocked, in which event additional officers should be dispatched for these specific purposes, (3) in cases involving drunken or deranged persons and family quarrels, when at least two officers should be sent, with a greater force when the reported conditions indicate the need, and (4) in cases where the principal objective is to save a life endangered by accident or some non-criminal act, when the force sent should be sufficient to accomplish its purpose.

Calls When Criminals Are in Operation. Cases where criminals are in the act of committing a crime should be divided into two categories: (1) crimes anticipated by the preparation of a broadcast kept on file at

car instead of the right side. He should go behind both cars to the right side of the other car.

If the occupants seem desperate, the officer should take no unnecessary chances but should have his gun in his hand; he may also instruct the driver to drop his ignition key to the ground. If the occupants open fire, he should fall to the ground unless he is prepared to return the fire.

When ready to search the occupants, the officer should open the car door and require all to alight from their car on his side; none should be permitted to alight from the opposite side. The officer should require them to come out facing him, but he should line them up with their backs to him.

When the officer has good reason to believe that the occupants are dangerous criminals, and especially when dealing with known dangerous criminals, he should report his position and the situation to headquarters by radio. In the meantime, he should either trail the criminals and report changes in their direction of travel while awaiting reinforcements, or proceed with the stop in the manner described above.

³ Responsibilities of the platoon commander in radio dispatching are discussed on p. 51.

the dispatcher's desk for immediate use in the event of attack and (2) crimes for which broadcasts have not been prepared.

Prepared Broadcasts. As a minimum, radio broadcasts should be prepared for premises that are connected to police headquarters directly or through some central point by a robbery alarm system. The broadcasts should be prepared after a careful study of the terrain, consideration being given to the most likely points and methods of attack, to locations providing cover and view to which officers should be assigned, to the directions from which certain officers should approach, to intersections that should be blockaded, to the manner in which entry should be effected by the officers, and to probable criminal escape routes under varying conditions.⁴

The broadcast, based on a plan of action approved by the command group of the department, should be on an 8- by 5-inch card filed alphabetically according to the name of the establishment in a box or drawer at the dispatcher's desk. The heading of the card should contain the name and address of the premises following the words "Robbery at _____," and there should be added in parentheses instructions to the dispatcher to repeat three times to lessen the possibility of misunderstanding. Blank spaces for the insertion of the radio numbers of officers dispatched to the scene should be designated by letters to enable the ready identification of an officer conveniently located for some specific reassignment. Detailed instructions should be included as to where each officer is to go and what he is to do, such as to cover a main, side, or alley entrance, or to enter through a designated door when the building is surrounded. The direction from which certain officers should approach should also be indicated.

Detective Assignments. Coincident with this action, the detective secretary should have one or more written assignment sheets at her desk to be handed to detectives at headquarters which will instruct each to take a designated weapon, such as a rifle, gas gun, riot gun, or submachine gun from the department gun cabinet (which should have an electrically controlled door to facilitate this operation) and proceed to the location, indicated on the written sheet, where he will perform the task indicated, which might be to pick off bandits attempting to escape across roof tops or down a fire escape, to fire a gas shell through a designated window when instructed to do so by the officer in command, or to cover a doorway with a riot gun or submachine gun.

Search for Bandits in Adjoining Premises. If the premises attacked afford an opportunity for the escape of the criminals into an office build-

⁴ For a sample of a prepared broadcast, see *Police Records*, pp. 246-251.

ing or other structure, detailed instructions should be incorporated in the broadcast schedule for that event. It is then that the identification of the blank spaces by letters, mentioned above, will serve to identify officers most conveniently located for specific reassigned.

Ground-floor Plans. Prepared broadcasts are not so essential for premises connected to police headquarters by burglary alarm (in contrast to robbery alarm), but the police should maintain on file at the dispatcher's desk, for these and other buildings that are serious burglary hazards, a sketch of the ground-floor plan showing the location of alleyways, doors, and windows in order to facilitate the wise deployment of officers in the event of alarm.

Quadrant Assignments. In cases where criminals are reported to be operating but there are no prepared broadcasts, the area surrounding the point of attack should be divided by the nearest intersecting streets into quadrants designated as northwest, northeast, southeast, and southwest. The dispatcher should send, as a minimum, the beat officer, the special investigator, and four officers, each assigned to the quadrant that lies closest to his beat; additional officers should be dispatched if the size of the premises or other conditions indicate a greater need. All officers should be informed of the nature of the call and instructed to go directly to the scene to surround the premises, four or more of them having their quadrants designated at that time so that they will know that they are to make a search of the designated area in the event the criminals escape.⁵ Since the capture of the criminals is the principal objective, the officers should approach the scene and surround the premises as quietly as possible. They should shut off their motors and lights and coast to within three or four doors of the location or just around the corner. They should remove their ignition keys.

In approaching the scene, the officers may meet the criminal leaving the crime scene; they should, therefore, observe all persons and vehicles, noting license numbers when possible.

The first officer at the scene should cover the avenue of most likely escape, which will usually be the rear, standing at one corner where two sides of the building are visible. He should indicate his position on arrival of a second officer by one short flash of his light. The second officer should take a position at the diagonally opposite corner so that each may cover two sides of the building.

⁵ As an example, the broadcast might be as follows: "Burglar reported operating in house, 2531 Marin. Go direct to scene: No. 5, northwest, No. 7, northeast, No. 10, southeast, No. 9, southwest, No. 6 (the beat officer) and No. 21 (the special investigator)." The dispatcher should repeat this message three times and then add: "Reported by neighbor at 2532 Marin; flashlight seen in upstairs window."

The beat officer is in charge of the operation unless the patrol sergeant or officer of higher rank is at the scene. When the building has been suitably surrounded, the one in charge should ring the front doorbell or hammer on the front door in an effort to frighten the criminals out the rear into the arms of the awaiting officers. If the results are negative, an entry should be effected and search made of the premises.⁶

As soon as the escape of the criminals has been established, the officers assigned to quadrants should undertake a search of their respective areas,⁷ while the beat officer, in the course of his preliminary investigation, should telephone to headquarters information helpful in effecting an arrest. At the same time the special investigator should proceed with a search of the scene for physical evidence.

⁶ During the search of the building in which a criminal is supposed to be hiding, the officer should hold his flashlight away from his body when using it; the criminal may shoot at the light. When the door of a room is found closed, the officer should open the door an inch and then, with flashlight and gun ready, he should give the door a quick and forceful shove with his foot so that it will strike against the wall and thus detect anyone hiding behind it. The officer should, at the same time, step back and listen before entering the room. If a noise is heard, he should crouch and avoid use of his flashlight while he takes stock of the situation. He should close each room door after searching to prevent the criminal entering and hiding in a room already searched. If the criminal is known to be dangerous, a second officer should cover the back of the officer making the search.

⁷ Officers assigned to search a quadrant should proceed immediately on the designated quadrant toward the scene of the crime, approaching to within a distance that a man might walk (one block per minute) or drive (if it is known that he has a car) during the elapsed time, but not closer than one block (except when instructed to go directly to the scene). From this point the officer should work away from the crime scene. Too much activity is not possible; he should question everyone seen. If the person questioned is a law-abiding citizen, the contact is valuable because he may have observed something of importance, and if not he will be alert to discover something of value to report. Stopping the citizen also enhances his appreciation of the service being rendered.

When a suspect is observed, the officer should stop him at once; otherwise the suspect will be lost. The officer who drives around the block planning to stop the suspect later usually cannot find him.

The officer should be diligent and thorough in his search; he should overlook nothing and should not give up the search too soon. When convinced that the criminal is not in the assigned quadrant, the officer should report to the dispatcher for further instructions.

The officer assigned to a quadrant should not visit or ride with another officer assigned to the same or an adjoining quadrant. He should not go to the crime scene unless instructed to do so, even though a description of the criminal has not been broadcast.

When instructed to go directly to the crime scene, the officer should undertake the search of the quadrant to which he has been assigned as soon as he learns that the criminal has left the scene.

Searching for the Criminal. In cases where the criminals have left the crime scene so recently as to justify pursuit, assignments should be made substantially as noted above, except that officers assigned to quadrants should go toward the scene to within a distance beyond which it seems likely that the criminals have traveled and should work outward from this point. Officers sent to the scene should make search to assure themselves that the criminals are not in hiding in the premises or surrounding area.⁸

Use of Codes in Radio Broadcasts. Codes should not be used in radio broadcasts because they unnecessarily introduce an opportunity for error and sometimes delay police action while a check is made to learn the meaning of a code number. The need for secrecy in police radio transmission is overemphasized. Tow-car people and others who may illegitimately profit from the broadcast are able to learn the code signals of interest to them without difficulty. Citizens who listen to police broadcasts will more frequently assist than hamper police operations.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS IN PATROL

Wise decisions must be made on a number of points if a satisfactory patrol service is to be provided. An estimate must be made of the number of men needed, and the number of shifts and the most suitable shift hours must be ascertained. The force must be distributed among shifts, and beats must be organized so as to assure approximately equal work loads for all members and equal service to citizens at all hours and in all sections of the community. Also, the question of frequent rotation of shifts and beat changes must be resolved, the patrol division must be organized, and the duties of the headquarters patrol staff must be established.

The Number of Patrolmen Needed. While a formula has not yet been developed to ascertain categorically the needed strength of a police department, the minimum number of men needed for the special divisions can be estimated on the basis of essential duties that must be performed, and the number needed for patrol may be estimated by ascertaining the number needed to provide an amount of patrol service (in terms of called-for services and routine patrol) comparable to that in departments that provide a superior quality of police service.

The relative need for routine patrol and called-for services in the several selected departments may be measured in terms of the relative frequency of incidents that call for services (Part I crimes, Part II offenses,

⁸ Criminals, like animals, hide when closely pursued. Blockade plans are discussed, *Police Records*, pp. 250-253.

accidents, miscellaneous reports, and arrests) because these are the incidents that routine patrol is intended to prevent and their frequency establishes the extent of called-for services.⁸ The need for inspection of store doors and windows and of other establishments in the local community may be measured in terms of the man-hours required to perform these inspections (see the Appendix).

The Selection of Patrol Shift Hours. Man power adequate to meet the need during the hour of maximum work load on the shift will operate at something less than full capacity during the hours of lighter loads; likewise, man power adequate to meet the average load on a shift will be overworked (and their service will consequently be deficient) during the peak hours and will not be used to full advantage during the hours of lighter-than-average load. Waste of man power is avoided, and greater efficiency is provided, therefore, by selecting shift hours that assure the smallest load fluctuation on all shifts.

The total of the hourly deviations in the shift load from the average may be taken as a measure of the fluctuations on each shift. The total

⁸ The measurement of the need for patrol service is discussed in the Appendix. The following data were obtained during surveys by the author of the indicated police departments.

NUMBER OF BEATS AND MAN-HOURS PER INCIDENT ON THE DAY SHIFT UNDER THE PROPOSED DISTRIBUTION OF THE PATROL FORCE, HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT, COMPARED TO FOUR OTHER CITIES *

City	Population, thousands	Area, square miles	Number of beats, day shift		Number of incidents in year, day shift †	Man- hours per inci- dent
			Motor	Foot		
Greensboro	59	18.0	5	0	2,426	6.0
Wichita.....	115	22.2	5	0	2,852	5.1
San Antonio.....	254	40.2	10	0	6,262	4.7
Pasadena.....	82	19.4	6	0	3,490	5.0
Hartford.....	166	17.4	10	5	7,283	6.0
Hartford (when men on foot beat are given half value).....						5.0

* When the man power is adequate to meet the load on the day shift, it is adequate to meet the need on the other shifts also when the distribution among the shifts is in proportion to the need.

† Incidents include Part I crimes, Part II offenses, arrests, and accidents.

of the hourly deviations for each shift must be multiplied by the proportion of incidents that call for service on that shift in order to take into account the number of man-hours on each shift available for this service. This is necessary because if two shifts have equal total deviations, the deviation is twice as significant on a shift having twice the man power to perform called-for and routine services. The corrected total of the hourly deviations for each shift, when added to the corrected totals for the other shifts, may then be considered an inverse measure of the relative suitability of shift hours.¹⁰

Ascertaining the Number of Shifts. The three 8-hour shifts provided in most police departments may be considered basic, but when the most suitable shift arrangement, selected as described above, contains hourly work loads on one or more shifts that fluctuate widely from the average for the shift, one or more overlapping shifts may be added to provide variations in man power to correspond more accurately to the fluctuations in the need. Overlapping shifts should be avoided except when the need is clearly established, however, because their use ordinarily necessitates changing the beat assignment of officers during their tour of duty; this makes the organization of beats more difficult and complicates the task of assigning duties and holding patrolmen responsible.¹¹

Distribution of the Force among Shifts. After the number of shifts is established and the hour for reporting for duty on each is fixed, the strength of the patrol force, which is ordinarily a known number, must be distributed among the several shifts on the basis of proportional need. Some men must be assigned to fixed posts and to areas where the previously described conditions necessitate foot patrol, but these assignments should be limited to essentials because of the superiority and economy of automobile patrol. Other patrolmen must be used for weekly, annual, and sick relief. The remainder of the man power is available for automobile patrol, and the number establishes the number of motorized beats into which the area of the community should be divided.

Each period of the day needs patrol man power (beyond that needed for relief, inspection, appearance in court, and similar duties the performance of which can be measured in hours and minutes) in proportion to the number of incidents that call for police service.¹² The man-hours

¹⁰ The selection of patrol shift hours is discussed in greater detail in the Appendix. An understanding of the selection procedure is facilitated by an examination of Tables 5 and 6, shown in the Appendix.

¹¹ These disadvantages are not significant when an overlapping 8-hour foot patrol is superimposed on motorized beats.

¹² Distribution of the force among shifts is discussed in detail in the Appendix.

needed for relief and inspection services during each of the periods created by shift changes may be rather accurately measured.

The Beat Layout. All beats on one shift should contain approximately equal needs for patrol service. The proportional need on each beat may be measured in terms of the proportion of inspectional duties and incidents calling for service. The proportion of the total area of the community that is enclosed in the beat is also a factor that must be considered in laying out the beats. A beat layout is selected that contains within each beat approximately equal proportions of the factors listed above.¹⁸

Shape of the Beat. The principal purpose of the patrol and the conditions under which it is performed influence the shape of the beat. Patrol duties may be so clustered along a roadway as to justify a route consisting of a length of street instead of an area for patrol. A beat in the form of a route simplifies assignment for the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations and for checking overtime and other illegal parking practices because it restricts officers to the streets on which their duties are located. The main-street pattern of the street layout in some cities makes foot beats in the form of a route desirable.

A patrol route simplifies the problem of supervision and permits the patrolman a view of his entire beat at any point, although these are advantages to the criminal as well. A route can be patrolled in only one of two directions and consequently provides less opportunity for surprising a criminal in operation than an area which permits the patrolman to follow diverse routes in patrol. For this reason, police beats should cover an area instead of a route, except when some advantages are derived by assigning men to a route.

A square beat permits a maximum quadrilateral area with a minimum distance between any two possible points within it. It is impossible to have all beats in the form of squares, however, because hazards requiring police service are not uniformly spread over the area of a city, and streams, railroads, and highways that sometimes form desirable beat boundaries are not arranged in square patterns. Also, it is sometimes desirable to include uniform social, racial, and business characteristics within the same beat, although this uniformity may be sacrificed in order to divide a congested business area among several motor beats. The beat pattern, therefore, must of necessity be irregular and should be influenced most strongly by the desirability of establishing beats with equal needs for police service.

Frequent Change of Beats Undesirable. The highest quality of patrol service results from the permanent assignment of an officer to a beat.

¹⁸ The layout of beats is described in detail in the Appendix.

Police hazards vary from place to place, and the resulting police duties consequently vary in nature from beat to beat. Advantages may be taken of differences in abilities and preferences of patrolmen by assigning them to beats having duties for which they are best suited. Frequent beat changes prevent an officer from becoming well acquainted with persons, hazards, and facilities on his beat and consequently better equipped to perform a superior patrol service; they also interfere with continuity of service because the investigation and disposition of cases sometimes extends over several days, and when a change is made, there is delay and sometimes neglect in disposing of these cases.

Finally, frequent changes of beat assignments make it difficult to place responsibility for unsatisfactory conditions on the beats. Procedures that interfere with the application of the important rule that each officer should be held responsible for the performance of his duties must not be tolerated.

Rotation of Shifts Undesirable. The practice of rotating the hours of work of patrolmen at monthly intervals is undesirable for the same reasons. Most efficient patrol service is attained by the permanent assignment of a patrolman to a platoon until such time as the quality of his services and the need for them justifies his transfer to another platoon. Police hazards, facilities, persons abroad, and physical conditions vary according to the hour of the day or night, and consequently, knowledge of conditions on one shift are not as useful to service on another shift. Police duties at night are quite different from police duties during the daytime, and the officer should not be rotated if the advantages of specialization are to be derived and his skill developed in handling certain types of police situations.

The transfer of a patrolman from one platoon to another should be considered a promotional device within his grade because the working hours of some platoons are less desirable than others. Usually, the first platoon (graveyard shift) is considered the least desirable and the second platoon (daylight shift), the most desirable. The recruit should be assigned for training and experience to the first platoon where his less frequent contact with more critical citizens lessens the disadvantages of his inexperience. Well-trained, experienced, very active officers are needed on the third platoon (evening shift), so an officer should be assigned to this shift as he becomes skilled by experience in police service and as the need develops through transfer and promotion. The officer, as he becomes older in years and experience and less active physically, should be transferred finally to the day shift as a reward for long, efficient service; there his knowledge of police service and acquaintanceship with the general public will prove most useful, and he will be subject to less physical strain.

Permanent shift assignments permit the transfer of officers to less desirable platoons as a disciplinary measure and to assure work to fit ability. There are men in some departments who, according to present-day standards, should not have been appointed to police service because they are unsuited by temperament, appearance, or mentality. Officers in this class, who are unable to get along with the general public, whose judgment is poor, or whose appearance is unsatisfactory, may be left on the first platoon where these deficiencies are less important because of less frequent public contact. Further, some officers for personal reasons, or because they like the working hours or the nature of the duties, prefer shifts which are usually considered less desirable. Under such circumstances, some choice in working hours is desirable.

Finally, the physical and domestic welfare of the officer requires that he work regular hours. Top physical and mental efficiency requires regular eating and sleeping habits. Regularity of hours likewise contributes to good family relationships. A family schedule interrupted each month by a change in working hours of the head of the house leads to discord and dissatisfaction. Disagreeable as the graveyard shift may be, if a schedule is established that assures adequate sleep and regular eating habits, an officer may work these hours indefinitely without impairing his health.

Organization of the Patrol Division. The patrol division is on 24-hour duty, divided into platoons for each shift, with officers under the direct supervision and control of the patrol captain. Each platoon is in charge of a lieutenant who is responsible to the patrol captain for the conduct of his officers and for all crimes committed in his jurisdiction during his tour of duty. The duties of the second (daytime) platoon lieutenant may be performed by the patrol captain in departments of such size that his regular duties as a captain do not interfere. Each lieutenant has direct control over one or more patrol sergeants and a staff supervision over the dispatcher and members of other divisions in the absence of their supervising officers.

In small departments such a large command group may not be required. As previously explained, in the smallest departments the duties of the patrol captain may be performed by the chief of police and the tasks of the platoon lieutenants by desk sergeants in direct command of patrolmen on street duty. As the size of the department increases, the inadequacy of the supervision of patrolmen on street duty by a desk sergeant necessitates the appointment of a patrol sergeant. The patrol sergeant then assumes the duties of the platoon lieutenant and exercises a staff supervision over the desk sergeant or dispatcher, when that officer is properly assigned to the records and communications division. Before the department attains a size that justifies more than one patrol sergeant

on duty on the largest shift, it will be found desirable to appoint a platoon lieutenant with a patrol sergeant to aid in the street supervision of patrolmen.

Duties of Headquarters Patrol Staff. The primary duty of the headquarters patrol staff is the direction and supervision of patrol personnel engaged in field operations. In a department of a size that requires some specialization, the headquarters patrol staff exercises a staff supervision over specialists during the absence of their own supervising officers and a direct control over them in emergency situations. Difficult problems in the supervision of specialists usually are not found in small departments. The platoon lieutenant in larger departments is available to coordinate the efforts of all police personnel during emergencies.

An important routine duty of the lieutenant is to review the circumstances that justify the jailing of persons arrested by his officers and also by officers from the special divisions during the absence of their supervising officers (see Chap. 15).

The patrol captain and his lieutenants have important duties in planning and control. Patrolmen must be assigned to platoons and beats, tactical procedures must be developed, plans must be made to meet unusual needs, and a careful check must be kept on operating procedures. The duties of the command group of the patrol division must be clearly established by department regulations if friction resulting from overlapping duties and neglect of other important tasks is to be avoided.

In departments in which the need for specialization is not sufficiently great to justify the creation of special units, staff planning and inspection of special operations must be assigned to the several commanding officers of the patrol division. These officers will then perform, in addition to their regular patrol duties, the planning and inspection duties normally assigned to the head of a special division.

Integrated Police and Fire Service. A practice not yet adopted by municipal administrators but under serious consideration by several that gives promise of great economy in man power is the integration of some police and fire services in such a manner as to increase substantially the effective patrol force on the street and correspondingly diminish the fire-fighting force unproductively held at a fire station between fire runs. Under this plan the fire station complement under a commanding officer would be limited to a force adequate to maintain the equipment and to drive it to a fire; they would work 8-hour shifts, and no one would sleep at the fire station.

At the fire the equipment would be manned by officers who would arrive from their beats in automobiles, those arriving before the equipment being prepared to deal with incipient blazes by the use of portable

extinguishers carried in their patrol cars. Inspections and other fire-prevention work would be carried on by officers on their beats performing a combined police and fire patrol. Recruit training would cover both crime and fire prevention and fighting. Specialization would occur at the level above patrolmen-firemen. Police sergeants would direct operations on the street and at crime scenes; superior fire officers arriving with the equipment, and by automobile at larger blazes requiring higher rank, would direct fire-fighting work. Designated officers would be sent to the fire for fire fighting; others would be assigned to divert traffic; many would be kept in reserve on their beats.

Fire officers of higher rank, serving as staff officers at the central control point, would plan the fire aspects of the work of the beat officers and integrate the work of crime and fire prevention and fighting. The operation of this plan would increase the effective man power and the resulting efficiency of both the police and fire services.

Chapter 7

CRIME INVESTIGATION

The basic purpose of the detective division is to investigate certain designated serious crimes and clear them by the recovery of stolen property and the arrest and conviction of the perpetrators. To this end the detective division must supervise the investigation by patrolmen and undertake additional investigation of all felonies, all cases that may be felonies, and all cases of theft, except those types of cases that are assigned by department regulations to the traffic, vice, and juvenile divisions. Detectives should, however, report to the appropriate special division all facts regarding violations in its field that come to their attention and take immediate action when necessary to prevent a failure of police duty.

This chapter assumes the existence of vice and juvenile divisions. In departments lacking these two divisions, some of the cases ordinarily assigned to them must be assigned to the detective division. The types of cases that should be assigned to the vice and juvenile divisions are discussed in Chaps. 10 and 11.

Coordination of the Patrol and Detective Divisions. The success of investigations is enhanced by active patrol participation. Suitable co-ordination of the patrol and detective divisions multiplies the effective strength of detectives, without commensurate loss in patrol effectiveness. Each patrolman should serve as the eyes and ears of the detective division and otherwise assist in the investigation of crimes and suspicious persons.

Patrolmen may perform many tasks that conserve the time and energy of detectives for duties that require their special skills and abilities. Patrolmen may serve warrants, especially late at night when detectives are off duty, and they may locate witnesses, bring in suspects, return property to victims, and perform a variety of other services at the request of detectives. They may be used on spot jobs and for surveillance, donning civilian clothes when necessary.¹ Detectives may also use patrolmen to advantage in the dissemination of warnings to merchants and

¹ While the individual case may interfere with patrol tasks, the infrequency of such special assignments makes unnecessary the maintenance of a detective force to be used for this purpose, except in very large departments.

other persons regarding the presence or threatened operation of criminals (see Chap. 22).

THE PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

Some tasks relating to the investigation of the crimes that detectives are responsible for clearing by arrest may be performed to best advantage by patrolmen. Patrol-division duties concerning a reported crime may be classified as noninvestigative (direct action) and investigative (the preliminary investigation). Direct action consists of care for injured persons, apprehension of the criminal at the scene or in flight, protection of the crime scene pending a search for physical evidence, and finally, the recovery of stolen property. The preliminary investigation is the immediate investigation up to the point at which postponement of further investigation would not jeopardize its successful completion. The preliminary investigation consists of interviewing the victim, searching for and interviewing witnesses and suspects and taking suspects into custody, if there is sufficient evidence of guilt or when postponement of arrest might permit the suspect to flee.

Preliminary Investigation by Patrolmen. Preliminary investigation of crimes by patrolmen has many advantages and no serious disadvantage. (1) The patrol division should, if possible, apprehend the criminal following the commission of a crime, and the preliminary investigation conducted at once provides information useful to this end. (2) The patrol division, with a 24-hour, radio-motorized service and complete coverage, is able to make prompt investigations. Speed is of great importance in crime investigation because the opportunity for apprehension decreases with the passage of time. The patrol force is also available for the immediate continuation of the investigation in the event important leads are revealed. (3) Except in very large departments, the use of the patrol force makes unnecessary 24-hour service by the detective division. Departments under 200 men usually provide detective service on the daylight shift and thus avoid the withdrawal of additional men from patrol on other shifts. (4) Preliminary investigations by patrolmen relieve the detectives of many time-consuming tasks, permitting the application of their special skills to more important tasks. (5) The patrolman's sense of responsibility is heightened when he investigates a crime which he was charged with preventing. (6) Investigation by patrolmen provides them with opportunities to acquire investigative techniques and to develop interrogative skill and also enables executives to discover investigative talent.

Crimes committed without protest from the victim and which often are not reported to the police until after some time has elapsed, such as

frauds and check cases, usually do not require immediate action and consequently do not ordinarily justify preliminary investigation by patrolmen.

Preliminary investigations are conducted under the close supervision of the commanding officer of the platoon, the lieutenant, or the patrol sergeant, who will determine how far the investigation should be carried before referring the case to the detective division. The most effective service results when patrolmen carry the investigation as far as their competency permits and when they render such further service to the detective division as they are able.

Continuing Investigation by Patrolmen. When patrol platoons are properly coordinated, the preliminary investigation is a continuing process until completed, *i.e.*, any part of it left incomplete by one shift will be continued by the next until all the obvious clues have been investigated. As a consequence, there will normally be no investigation left for the officer on whose beat the crime was committed when he returns for duty 16 hours later. However, when additional information relating to a previously investigated case is received by the platoon on duty, any action within the limits of the preliminary investigation, as defined above and justified by the new information, should be taken by the patrol division.

Continued Investigation by Detective Division. When the preliminary investigation results in the arrest of the criminal, the detective's responsibility is limited to the recovery of stolen property, the preparation of the case for presentation in court, and the investigation of other crimes, either reported or unreported, which the offender may have committed. When the perpetrator has not been arrested, the detective should analyze and integrate the information contained in reports by patrolmen and personally continue the investigation with the assistance of the patrol division.

The greater skill and ability of the detective, his background of experience, and his possession of many facts from similar or related investigations qualify him to continue the investigation until the criminal has been apprehended or further effort seems futile. He may utilize the facilities of the patrol division in routine additional searches for witnesses, physical evidence, and suspects, and thus save his own time and energy for more difficult phases of the investigation. The detective may re-interview the victim and principal witnesses in the hope that closer and more skillful questioning may uncover additional information or information acquired since the preliminary investigation. Such duplication is not undesirable.

Immediate Investigation by Detectives. Each detective, while on duty, should be notified of reports of crimes assigned to him; he may then

participate in their investigation to the extent the seriousness of the crime and his own availability warrant. When the preliminary investigation is conducted by a patrolman, the detective's immediate attention is not usually required. Immediate investigation by a detective is less frequently needed in crimes against property than in offenses against persons; immediate detective attention is required only when their greater skills, knowledge, and freedom of movement is needed and when the investigation should be conducted without delay.

The head of the detective division must decide which types of crimes occurring during detective off-duty hours should be reported immediately to him or to the detective assigned to that type of crime, and how far the investigation of the patrol division should proceed before conferring with the detective division. These decisions are influenced by the competence of the patrol force, and particularly the ability, judgment, and experience of the commanding officer in charge of the preliminary investigation. The exact limits to patrol investigation are difficult to establish because of the variables involved, but a general policy may be worked out between the commanding officers of the patrol and detective divisions, and occasional informal conferences will make possible the definition of these limits to the satisfaction of the divisions involved.

Exclusive Responsibility for Patrolmen Undesirable. Although patrolmen should be held accountable for all crimes committed on their beats and should take an active part in the investigation of them, complete responsibility for the clearance of these crimes by arrest and recovery of stolen property should not be placed on patrolmen for the following reasons: (1) Responsibility placed on one patrolman interferes with the continuity of the preliminary investigation, which will be discontinued at the end of the officer's tour of duty unless he works overtime. This arrangement of responsibility makes overtime work mandatory. (2) If the beat officer is to be held responsible, he must have commensurate authority and necessary time and freedom of movement to conduct the investigation. This means that he must be privileged to leave his beat for protracted periods to conduct investigations across town, in offices, homes, and at headquarters; during this time he is usually not readily available for dispatch. The investigation may require so much time that it interferes with regular patrol duties. (3) Many advantages are gained when detectives rather than the patrolman on the beat are held responsible for the completion of crime investigations and the clearance of crimes by arrest and recovery of stolen property. They are specially qualified for the task by reason of ability, training, experience, and possession of good information sources and facts relating to similar crimes.

Patrol Participation Should Be Stimulated. The success of the detective division in clearing cases by arrest and in recovering stolen property is substantially increased by harnessing patrol man power to this purpose. The patrolman is responsible for the prevention of crime on his beat, and while he should not be held responsible for its clearance, he should be urged by patrol supervisors and detectives to do all in his power to arrest the perpetrator and to recover stolen property.

Supervising officers should urge the patrolman to continue his efforts to apprehend criminals who have operated on his beat on the ground that the effectiveness of patrol, on a beat as well as throughout the community, is measured in part by the crime rate. The arrest of the criminally active will tend to reduce the crime rate, thus simplifying the patrol task of preventing crime from occurring. The detective assigned to a case should discuss it with the patrolman on whose beat the crime occurred and encourage him to continue his efforts. Clearances and recoveries, which are a measure of detective accomplishment, increase when the detective has patrolmen working for him in this manner. The effectiveness of the department in the investigation of crimes is further increased by keeping the patrol force currently informed of the operation and whereabouts of criminals and of wanted persons, of their associates, hangouts, descriptions, methods of operation, and automobiles used.

Patrol activity in the investigation of crimes is also stimulated by giving the patrolman credit for his accomplishments. Detectives and patrol supervisors should be diligent in their efforts to ensure that the chief recognizes praiseworthy accomplishments of individual patrolmen by commendation on the department bulletin, where all members may read that the efforts are appreciated. Likewise, the patrolman's service record should reflect arrests for Part I offenses and the recovery of property.² Finally, press representatives should be influenced to give due credit to the patrol force, using the name of the patrolman who made the arrest when policy does not forbid this procedure. The practice of some detectives of accepting without protest an implied credit in a newspaper item for an arrest made by a patrolman damages the morale and interest of patrolmen and destroys the close working relationship which should be nurtured between the two divisions so that crime may be most effectively cleared.

THE SEARCH FOR PHYSICAL EVIDENCE

The police laboratory performs a valuable service in crime investigation by assisting in the reconstruction of criminal action and in the

² See *Police Records*, Form 43, pp. 160-163; and Chap. 20.

identification of persons and things. When studied by a criminalist,³ physical things found at crime scenes affected by the criminal act or that were used in its perpetration often reveal facts useful in identifying the criminal and in ascertaining actions that occurred.

The nature of substances to be examined and the character of the examinations to be made vary so widely that the services of persons skilled in every science are needed in various crime investigations. Chemists, physicists, biologists, anthropologists, botanists, toxicologists, entomologists, metallurgists, and physicians are some of the specialists who may contribute. Psychiatrists, psychologists, questioned-document examiners, and firearms-identification, fingerprint, and interrogation experts are among others who may be called upon to assist. To employ such a complete staff and provide them with equipment and standards needed for all possible analyses and comparisons is beyond the means and the needs of any police organization. It is well, therefore, to consider the opposite extreme, *i.e.*, the bare minimum in laboratory requirements for a small department.

The Rudimentary Police Laboratory. Every small force should have a rudimentary laboratory, even though it has limited equipment and is not staffed by a highly skilled criminalist. A police officer with simple equipment, an enthusiastic interest in scientific crime detection, and a knowledge of his own limitations can provide useful services in crime investigations. This man is usually the identification officer, and the nucleus of his laboratory is his darkroom. He is engaged in scientific crime detection when he searches for, develops, and photographs latent fingerprints, photographs the scenes of crimes and serious accidents and makes casts of footprints and other impressions. He has probably canvassed his community, the immediate surrounding area, and the state, and inventoried the agencies with competent staff and suitable equipment to make needed examinations for him.

Without discounting the desirability of suitable laboratory equipment operated by a skilled staff, the advantages of the rudimentary crime laboratory, in departments that have no other, are worth mentioning. It develops a scientific attitude in the force by informing the members about the services that qualified examiners can provide and in training them in the collection, marking, preserving, and handling of evidence. More physical evidence is then made available for examination by competent experts, and some gross identifications and easily drawn conclusions that facilitate crime investigations are made without expert assistance. A public and official interest in scientific crime detection that

³ For definition of the term "criminalist," see Chap. 1, p. 4.

facilitates obtaining more complete equipment and better qualified staff is thus promoted.

Functions of the Laboratory. If the police department is large enough to warrant the establishment of a crime laboratory, apart from the identification officer, many of the above-mentioned tasks and facilities should be assigned to it.⁴ The identification officer should then relinquish to this laboratory the darkroom with the attendant task of developing photographs of criminals and fingerprints; the view camera with the duty of photographing crime and accident scenes; the fingerprint kit and camera with the responsibility of searching crime scenes for latent fingerprints and developing, photographing, and lifting them; and the casting material with the task of searching for and making casts of impressions.

Laboratory usefulness is dependent on the receipt of physical evidence in an unchanged condition. Search must be made, therefore, before the crime scene is altered, and physical evidence must be recorded, preserved, and transported to the laboratory. Involved are the tasks of sketching and photographing crime scenes; searching for, developing, photographing, and lifting latent fingerprints; searching for articles or impressions left at the scene by the criminal; making casts of impressions of tires, tools, feet, and other body parts; searching for and preserving lethal instruments, such as knives, bludgeons, firearms, bullets, cartridge cases, poisons, suspected food, vomit, and so on.

Not all the duties taken from the identification officer should be assumed by the laboratory staff. Tasks of searching crime and accident scenes for physical evidence should now be assigned to a sufficient number of motorized special investigators to assure immediate 24-hour service throughout the area.

The Special Investigator.⁵ The search of crime scenes for physical evidence calls for the services of specialists supplied with essential equipment and assigned to each tour of duty so as to provide service at any hour. The use of special investigators for this purpose makes possible the best investigation because (1) the investigation is undertaken immediately, with minimum delay; (2) qualified officers may be selected and given intensive training, thus assuring a superior service; (3) more expensive, delicate, and complete equipment may be provided when it is used by qualified men; and (4) laboratory facilities are utilized more

⁴ The location of the crime laboratory in the organization structure and its relation to line divisions are discussed in Chap. 15.

⁵ The duties and equipment of special investigators are described by Don J. Finney in "Police Duties at Crime Scenes."

fully because more physical evidence is brought in for examination. The special investigator speeds operations by saving time and assures, by his greater skill, an increased proportion of crimes cleared by arrest.

Although the skills of the criminalist may assure a more thorough performance of tasks at crime scenes, his use for this purpose is ill-advised. While the job requires special training, it does not ordinarily merit the services of a highly trained criminalist. Using the services of a highly trained man on a task that does not usually require such costly skills is fundamentally unsound; the essential skills may be mastered by an officer who has not spent years in training for service as a criminalist. Delay is experienced in getting the criminalist to the scene, especially during his off-duty hours, and 24-hour service by one man is undesirable. Even though the laboratory is staffed with several criminalists, it is not practical to maintain a staff on duty at night. The inconvenience, delay, and imposition on the off-duty time of the criminalist result in his services being used in only a portion of the total cases where physical evidence might be found. For these latter reasons, the identification officer should not be used for this purpose either.

The assignment of the task of searching crime scenes to either the investigating detective or patrolman is also inadvisable. The task deserves specialization because of its importance, the special skills required, its dissimilarity to other police tasks, and because there is not sufficient work of this kind to keep each officer in practice. Supplying each man with essential equipment would be unduly expensive, and its possession would prove inconvenient to the individual officer. Requiring the investigating officer to obtain necessary equipment at headquarters would be inconvenient, time consuming, and would delay the investigation; in addition, equipment used by all officers is subject to abuse from lack of operating skill and clearly placed responsibility for its condition.

Accident Investigations. The tasks at accident scenes differ in no important respect from those at crime scenes. Prompt attention, identical skills, and the same equipment are needed, and both types of investigation require measurements, diagrams, photographs, and the search for physical evidence. The special investigator, therefore, should search accident as well as crime scenes for physical evidence, recording the findings by photograph and sketch.

The separation of the search for physical evidence at crime scenes from that at accident scenes by assignment to different special investigators is inadvisable. Separation usually results in the investigation of crimes being assigned to the detective division and accidents to the traffic division. Inadequate supervision of the special investigators in each of these divisions often results in less satisfactory work. Furthermore, they

are not readily available for assignment to other tasks between investigations, as is the case if the special investigators are members of the patrol force. The special investigator from the detective or traffic division takes over exclusive investigation of incidents in his particular field, which is undesirable because the advantages of preliminary investigation by the patrol division are then lost and two officers are usually assigned to the work. Separation of the tasks in this manner destroys the close integration of the several divisions that is so essential to effective operation.

Relation of Beat Officer to the Special Investigator. In the preliminary investigation, the beat officer is primarily concerned with people, whereas the special investigator is primarily concerned with things. In the investigation of a crime or accident, they should work as a team, with the beat officer in charge of the investigation, the special investigator furnishing him all pertinent information discovered in the course of the search.

In the preliminary investigation at some crime and accident scenes, the beat officer will need no assistance; at others, however, owing to the need for separating and guarding the large number of persons involved and for protecting the premises or area from intrusion by the curious, he may need assistance. This should be provided by the officers dispatched to the scene, as described in the previous chapter, or by a call to headquarters for additional officers. Likewise, the special investigator, in most cases, will need no assistance except in making measurements. The beat officer can assist in this and other tasks; conditions will infrequently necessitate the assignment of other officers or of a second special investigator.

The Number of Special Investigators. The required number of special investigators is influenced principally by the accident and crime rates of the community. In cities of less than 50,000 population, the duties of a special investigator usually may be combined with those of a patrol sergeant; in larger communities, such a combination is ill-advised because the sergeant's first duty when a crime has been committed is to direct his force in the pursuit and apprehension of the criminal. In cities of less than 100,000 population, one special investigator is usually adequate on the evening shift, which invariably has the greatest load, while on the graveyard shift one such officer may cover the least important beat in addition to performing his duties as a special investigator. On the day tour, the special investigator may perform the follow-up and investigative duties of a chief accident investigator in addition to his other duties. As the size of the city increases, the amount of work necessitates the appointment of additional special investigators, first on the evening tour, then on the day shift, and finally the removal of the special investigator from a beat on the early morning platoon.

When two or more special investigators are assigned to the same tour of duty, the area of the city should be divided into sectors having approximately equal numbers of crimes and accidents. The division should, when possible, follow such natural boundaries as railroad tracks, streams, and main thoroughfares. When there is a number of patrol sergeants equal to the number of special investigators, one investigator should be assigned to each, and in this case the patrol beats in the sector assigned to a sergeant should be the area covered by his special investigator.

Division Assignment of Special Investigators. The need for continuous supervision of the special investigator and the desirability of the close integration of his work with the preliminary investigation by the patrolman dictate the assignment of this specialist to the patrol division. This plan has the further advantage of making his services during slack periods available for general patrol in areas needing special attention and for some special assignments. Since the special investigator gathers material to be examined by the police laboratory, and since he aids in the investigation of crimes and accidents, the laboratory technician should regularly make a staff inspection of accomplishments, procedures, and equipment; and the detective and traffic divisions should likewise make a staff inspection of procedures and reports relating to crime and accident investigations (see Chap. 15).

THE DETECTIVE DIVISION

In a small department the chief may perform all the duties of the detective division, and in a somewhat larger one, with one or two officers devoting full time to crime investigations, the chief may direct their activities, thus making unnecessary the creation of a detective division. When the direction and control of officers who devote full time to crime investigation become burdensome, the chief is justified in creating a detective division with one of the detectives designated as the head to direct and coordinate the crime investigative activities of both detectives and patrolmen in the manner previously described.

Selection, Rank, and Pay of Detectives. Routine patrol service with its manifold problems and experience in preliminary investigations provides invaluable training for future detectives. The qualities of a good detective are an abundance of physical and nervous energy, considerably more-than-ordinary persistence, imagination, and ingenuity with the initiative and force to apply them, and a broad background of experience with special reference to information sources. Psychological and physical tests may one day be developed to measure these qualities, but at present the best method of discovering latent investigative talents is to

observe preliminary investigations by patrolmen for the purpose of selecting those who give evidence of investigative ability for trial service in the detective division. A written examination intended only to measure the information capacity of the candidates does not seem to be the best method for the selection of detectives.

The qualities needed in crime investigations are not the exact qualities needed in supervisory officers; some sergeants and lieutenants of superior ability would make mediocre detectives, and likewise, some of the best investigators would not prove satisfactory as supervisory officers. For this reason it seems wise to select detectives from the patrol force for this special service, but not to give them concurrently a rank of sergeant, which automatically places them in important supervisory positions, in the event they do not prove satisfactory as detectives.

They should, however, receive a pay increment above their patrolman's salary with additional increments for each year of service in the detective division so as to make the detective service attractive for qualified members, and provide a desirable alternative to promotion through supervisory positions.

Detectives should not be frozen into their positions by civil service. In no other branch of police service may the accomplishments and abilities of individual officers be as accurately appraised as in the detective service, where percentage clearances by arrest and percentage property recoveries in one class of crime reflect rather accurately the ability and effort of the investigating officers. The administrator should take advantage of this measure in the trial of patrolmen and transfer those who do not demonstrate the necessary skills.

The Number of Detectives. Scientific studies have not been made to establish the optimum detective case load in the various classes of investigation, and consequently there is no reliable method of ascertaining accurately the most desirable number of detectives. The number is influenced by the practice of having detectives work in pairs, by the extent and quality of patrol participation in crime investigation, and by the number of detectives assigned to regular duty after 5:00 p.m.

The number of detectives devoting their time to crime investigations (not including cases assigned to the vice, juvenile, and traffic divisions) should be about 10 per cent of the total personnel of the force, including clerical and other nonpolice classifications. If a larger proportion of the total force is used for this purpose, it may indicate that the man power assigned to the detective division is out of proportion to actual need; the assignment of 12 per cent of the total force to the detective division is excessive.

Policewomen in Detective Service. The services of a policewoman are needed in the detective division on some occasions. Some investigations

may be made more easily and more effectively by a woman than by a man. The practice of using policewomen instead of men to interview women and young children is frequently more productive, usually less objectionable to the interviewee, and invariably favored by the public. Policewomen are essential in making some raids, in making arrests where the female criminal may seek refuge in a women's rest room, in searching and transporting female prisoners, and in the interrogation of young women and inexperienced older ones.

In departments where all policewomen are assigned to the juvenile division, regulations should require them to assist the detective division on request. In the absence of policewomen, a female detective-division secretary, a woman records clerk, or a matron, is useful in filling this intermittent need. In larger departments where the need is so frequent as to occupy a substantial part of the time of one policewoman, she should be assigned to the detective division and given either investigative or clerical assignments to occupy her time during slack periods.

Detective Secretary. The need for a detective secretary depends upon the size of the division and the clerical duties imposed on detective-division members. Lack of a suitable central police records system may necessitate the performance of many clerical duties by the detective-division staff. Convenient office arrangement minimizes the need for secretarial services as when, in departments of fewer than 100 men, the detective captain's office may be so located as to enable him to share the services of a secretary with the chief or some other captain or to utilize the services of an information clerk (and in smaller departments, the services of a desk sergeant) as a receptionist. The use of dictating equipment, with records-division stenographers to transcribe, further diminishes the need for a secretary.⁶

Detective Records. Suitable control of detective operations is dependent on the maintenance of administrative records by the division secretary or a clerk. Needed as a minimum are (1) some form of daily attendance record for recording the hours worked and the time of routine calls of each division member, (2) a monthly summary sheet for each detective on which are recorded from day-to-day all cases assigned to him and also all previous cases on which he recovered property or effected clearance by arrest during the current month, with identifying case data, the date reported, clearance by arrest, whether arrest was followed by prosecution, whether the case was unfounded, whether the perpetrator was adult or juvenile, and the amount of property recovered, and (3) a prosecution ledger to assure a monthly follow-up and recording of the disposition of cases tried in state and Federal courts by registering

⁶ See *Police Records*, pp. 66 and 134.

therein, according to class of crime, each case filed on, listing the number, name of defendant, and date filed, with other columns for the date disposed of, the court and docket number, whether the defendant plead guilty to the charge or to a lesser one, whether tried, whether found guilty; not guilty, or no verdict, and whether the case was dismissed.⁷

Certain operating records are likewise needed. The minimum requirements are a copy of the daily bulletin, in departments that use a typed bulletin, and a copy of complaint sheets and investigation reports on all cases assigned to the division. If detectives do not use the patrol division squad room, files of persons wanted and of stolen automobiles and bicycles also must be provided in the detective quarters.⁸

Detectives Should Work Singly. Detectives should be assigned to work alone and not in pairs. All the reasons previously given for one man instead of two men in patrol-car operation apply with equal force to detective investigations. Most investigations may be made more effectively by one man, and the economy of one-man assignment is apparent. Department regulations, however, should require a detective, engaged in a dangerous investigation or arrest, to secure needed assistance from other detectives when available and otherwise from the patrol division.

The Assignment of Detectives. As a general rule all cases of the same class should be investigated by the detective specializing in that type. This does not mean, however, that there should be no deviation from the plan of assignment. Specialization of detective assignment fixes responsibility, simplifies training, permits a selection of personnel for assignment on a basis of special interest and ability, and provides a more accurate measure of the accomplishment of the individual detective. Frequent repetition of tasks increases skill, and the field of attention is narrowed, thus permitting more effective work in making contacts and keeping informed on a particular class of criminals and their operation. For example, a detective assigned to nonresidence burglaries is able to concentrate his attention on this class of crime, to learn the type of persons who commit such burglaries, where they spend their time, and where they dispose of their stolen property.

The classes of crimes that are assigned to individual detectives are influenced by the proportional incidence of the various crimes, by the seriousness of the offenses, by the average length of time required in their investigation, and by the ability of the investigator. The small number

⁷ *Police Records* discusses daily attendance record, pp. 159-160; the detective summary sheet, p. 143; and the prosecution ledger, p. 101.

⁸ *Police Records* discusses the daily bulletin, p. 58; the complaint sheet, pp. 53-54; the investigation reports, pp. 62 and 66; and files for the information of department members, p. 138.

of crimes in some classes makes necessary the assignment of more than one class to a detective. For this reason classes of crimes assigned to one man should be similar or related in some manner. For example, crimes such as bad checks of all kinds, shoplifting, and shortchanging are related because they are frequently committed against retail merchants. A detective assigned to these crimes enjoys some of the advantages of specialization, because his field of attention in terms of area and prospective victims and offenders is narrowed. The merchants also become better acquainted with the investigator than they would if these three classes of crimes were divided among three detectives who, in addition, were given other assignments. Some classes of crimes may be grouped for assignment purposes because they are related in the sense that one may grow out of another. For example, robberies, aggravated assaults, rapes, and abortion sometimes result in homicide. Frauds, bad checks of all kinds, and counterfeiting are other examples of crimes that are similar in character.

In some cities the number of crimes in one class may be more than can be adequately investigated by one detective. Burglaries under these conditions may be advantageously divided into residence and nonresidence, because burglars who attack dwellings usually do not attack stores and vice versa. Further division of burglaries is usually undesirable, however, because while individual house prowlers may direct their attention almost exclusively to apartment houses, to one-story bungalows, or to duplexes, and while individual store burglars may specialize on chain grocery stores, or clothing stores, or warehouses, and so on, there is not so high a degree of persistency in such specialization among all house prowlers and among all nonresidence burglars as there is in the specialization of all burglars in either residence or nonresidence burglaries. In a large city, however, an advantageous further division may be found by analyzing the persistency of burglars in restricting their operations against one type of property. For example, the separation of hotel prowls from residence burglaries, and of warehouse burglaries from other nonresidence burglaries, may be desirable when the number in either category justifies the full time of one detective and when there is evidence of persistency of burglars specializing in such crimes.

Other classes of crimes do not lend themselves to suitable division, and when the number is more than can be thoroughly investigated by one man, a territorial division should be made among two or more detectives in order to diminish the area covered. A territorial division of residence burglaries and of nonresidence burglaries is also usually more desirable than the further division described above.

A categorical segregation of classes of crimes for detective assignment is inadvisable because of the many variable factors. The following assignment of classes of crimes among the detectives in departments of several different sizes is indicative of current practice and shows variations in case load among the detectives.

<i>Class of crime *</i>	<i>Average number of cases investigated by each detective in a year</i>
Saginaw, Mich.:	
Auto thefts and related cases (1)	766
Sex offenses and related cases (1)	545
Bicycle thefts and petty larceny (1)	586
Homicides, robberies, burglaries, grand larcenies (2)	287
Kansas City, Mo.:	
Auto-theft bureau (11)	202
General assignments bureau (12)	430
Robbery bureau (12)	99
Burglary bureau (19)	234
Homicide bureau (14)	153
San Francisco, Calif.:	
Auto theft, stripping, embezzlement (13)	374
Theft from auto (6)	531
Bunco and grand theft (6)	114
Burglary (14)	208
Worthless checks (7)	81
Federal offenses (2)	88
General: assaults, rapes, deadly weapons (14)	292
Homicide and abortion (6)	12
Hotel detail (4)	16
Missing persons, degenerates (14)	21
Pawnshops: thefts (10)	96
Robbery (10)	143
Portland, Ore.:	
Homicide and robbery detail	504
Burglary detail	552
Pawnshop detail	450
Safe detail	552
Auto-theft detail	432
Bicycle theft	1,149
Sex, bunco detail	390
Fugitive detail	420
Check detail	1,032
Narcotics, arson, general detail	516
Missing-persons detail	1,452
General-assignment detail	552

* The number in parentheses is the number of assigned detectives.

Investigation of Juvenile Crimes. For the following reasons detectives should investigate to their conclusion all crimes in the classes of offenses assigned to them, even though juveniles are involved in some individual cases as victims or perpetrators: (1) The assignment of crimes for investigation on the basis of the offender's age is unsound because the age cannot usually be exactly established before arrest and the apprehension of the culprit is usually effected by the investigation of the offense. (2) To assume the age before the identity of the perpetrator is established usually results in controversy and friction because the detective may initiate the reclassification of an offense as juvenile in order to avoid work or the embarrassment of a low percentage of clearances. (3) Divided responsibility is undesirable. The assignment to one division for investigation and clearance of all crimes of a class, regardless of the age of the offender or victim, is feasible and avoids a division of responsibility. (4) The detective division has as its primary purpose the investigation and clearance by arrest of the most serious crimes, and its members are usually best qualified by training and experience to investigate them. The juvenile division is not designed to investigate the most serious crimes. (5) The accomplishments of the detective division and of its individual members are measured in terms of the clearance by arrest of the assigned classes of crimes, and consequently they should have authority to conduct the investigation to its conclusion. When responsibility for the investigation of a class of crime is divided between the detective and juvenile divisions, the clearance rate no longer reflects the effectiveness of one division or of one detective.

Distinction must be made, however, between the investigation of crimes committed by juveniles and the disposition of the individual juvenile offender. While the investigation of crimes involving juveniles should be the exclusive responsibility of the detective division,⁹ the disposition of the juvenile offender should be the exclusive responsibility of the juvenile division. Also, since care must be observed not to subject juveniles to unwholesome influences and especially to contact with adult offenders, department regulations should require that the interrogation of juvenile suspects be conducted in the quarters of the juvenile division or in the presence of a member of its staff. The disposition of the juvenile offender by the juvenile division is discussed in Chap. 12.

Relations with Prosecutor. In some jurisdictions county prosecutors take an active part in the investigation of crimes committed in their bailiwicks in order to assure suitable law enforcement. The number of investigators employed by the prosecutor, types of crimes investigated,

⁹ See the exceptions noted in Chap. 11.

and the extent of the investigations conducted by his office are influenced by his evaluation of the quality of investigation by local police agencies. The prosecutor's appraisal of the political value of such investigations and of the improved record of convictions that results, as well as his personal interest in crime prosecutions, are also factors that influence his participation in this work.

The need for the investigation of crimes by the prosecutor's office exists in communities where police investigations are ineffectual. This condition arises from detective incompetence, which may be due to inadequate training, inferior procedures of recruitment, unsuitable methods of selecting from the force those best qualified as detectives, lack of leadership with consequent ineffective direction and control, or indifference on the part of detectives to their work. Police investigations must be raised to suitable standards by overcoming these weaknesses, or responsibility for crime investigation will be increasingly taken over by the prosecutor's office. In some jurisdictions the police are gradually forfeiting their crime investigative responsibilities by the indifference of detective clockwatchers who are protected in their jobs by rigid civil service regulations.

Active investigation of crimes by the prosecutor's office usually makes the relationship between the detectives and the prosecutor subject to strain, and consequently more often unsatisfactory. The desirability, if not the actual necessity, of a close and friendly relationship between the two offices justifies the police in making determined efforts to provide a quality of service and a degree of cooperation satisfactory to the prosecutor. The most important step in this direction is to make the investigation of each case filed on correct and complete in every detail and to report to the prosecutor on each case, summarizing all information needed by him in preparing his case and in presenting it to the jury.¹⁰

Police Legal Adviser. Some departments strengthen their investigations by the services of a legal adviser appointed to the force for the primary purpose of reviewing the investigation of all felony cases before they are filed and the most serious cases during the process of investigation. The services of the legal adviser are particularly needed in departments that, owing to lack of suitable training and other shortcomings in personnel, have a poor quality of investigation. His services should include a review of the investigation of felony cases for all divisions, legal advice on a variety of matters to the department and its individual members, and assistance in the drafting of proposed legislation in which the police have a large interest. In jurisdictions where certain

¹⁰ See discussion of prosecution report in *Police Records*, p. 98

types of cases and certain individual criminals may be indifferently prosecuted, the department legal adviser protects police interests; he is able to forestall the unjustified dismissal of cases or the acceptance of guilty pleas on relatively minor charges by persons facing felony charges.

The Lie Detector. Some police departments have successfully employed the lie detector as an investigative aid for over 30 years, and it is now used by the Army, the Navy, and over 200 individual law-enforcement agencies. This instrument, by facilitating interrogation, speeds up investigation to such an extent that its use is an economic necessity. In addition to its use in the investigation of serious crimes, some departments profitably employ the lie detector in all routine investigations, thus conserving the time of investigating officers. Gratifying results in discovering persons wanted and in clearing unknown crimes have been obtained in some departments by routine lie-detector tests on all transient prisoners.

Best results are obtained when the lie detector is operated in a specially designed room with equipment suitable for this purpose (see Chap. 17). The lie-detector operator should be highly qualified and attached to the police crime laboratory where his services are uniformly available to all divisions of the department.

Hours of Detective Duty. When the patrol division makes preliminary investigations, the need for immediate detective investigation is influenced by the frequency of incidents that require skill and ability beyond those of patrolmen. Some, but not all, homicides deserve the prompt attention of detective investigators, but crimes in the other classes infrequently require detective skill immediately. Such serious crimes as rape and aggravated assault may deserve immediate detective attention, especially if the victim may die. Robberies and burglaries resulting in a heavy property loss occasionally may justify similar prompt detective investigation.

The need for 24-hour detective service is found only in large cities (in excess of 500,000 population), although the need is influenced by the extent and quality of preliminary investigations by the patrol division. Detective-division quarters are usually open and detectives regularly on duty from 8:00 A.M. until 5:00 P.M. Most cases may ordinarily be investigated with least inconvenience to the victims, witnesses, and suspects during business office hours. The infrequent case where other hours are better suited may usually be investigated by the patrol division. The detectives may occasionally find it necessary to work at other hours in the investigation of some cases, and each should be privileged to vary his hours of work to suit the immediate needs of the cases under his investigation.

Detectives assigned to shifts after 5:00 P.M. usually cannot be given specialized assignments but must investigate all crimes committed during their tour of duty. Consequently, their investigation will consist of nothing more than a preliminary investigation for the detective who is regularly assigned to that class of crime on the day shift. Since every on-duty officer should be supervised, the absence of detective supervising officers necessitates a staff supervision of detectives on duty after 5:00 P.M. by the commanding officer of the patrol division, as previously described.

There is greater need for detectives on duty during the evening hours than in the period after midnight or 1:00 A.M. The need for detectives on duty from 5:00 P.M. until 1:00 A.M. is not so great or so constant as the frequency of this practice would seem to indicate. Cities of less than 150,000 population infrequently have crimes committed during these hours that require the immediate attention of a detective.

The head of the detective division and individual detectives in departments that do not provide detective service after 5:00 P.M. should confer with the patrol-division captain and his lieutenants regarding crimes that seem to deserve immediate attention and regarding preliminary investigations by patrolmen.

Supervision of Detectives. The head of the detective division should ordinarily be a captain; his need for lieutenants and sergeants is determined chiefly by the size of his force, the number of shifts they work, and the extent to which supervisory tasks are expedited by a follow-up officer. Supervision of detectives after 5:00 P.M. by the patrol command is never completely satisfactory but it is justified when the number of detectives does not justify the assignment of their own supervisor. When the patrol command fails to provide adequate supervision and when friction develops between the patrol command and detective personnel, justification is found for the assignment of a commanding officer from the detective division.

The number of immediate subordinate supervising officers to aid the captain of detectives on the day tour of duty is determined chiefly by the size of his force. The nature of crime investigative duties emphasizes the need for a close and continuous supervision of detectives. Suitable supervision is essential if satisfactory results are to be obtained. It is made possible by continuous review of the daily work of each man and appraisal of his accomplishments in terms of clearances, recoveries, arrests, and convictions.

The span of control of the captain of detectives is influenced by so many variable factors that it is impossible to establish categorically a maximum number of subordinates that he may satisfactorily supervise.

While an experienced and capable detective requires little advice in the investigation of his cases and refers only important matters to his commanding officer for decision or information, each detective should be able to confer with his immediate superior on important matters without unreasonable delay. Consequently, it seems desirable that the number of detectives reporting to a supervisor should not exceed 10. When two or more are assigned to the same class of crime investigation, there is some justification for designating one as the head to direct the investigations of all, thus creating a bureau within the division.

Planning Detective Operations. Planning detective operations includes meeting relatively stable changes in crime frequency by permanent changes in assignments and by meeting temporary fluctuations that result in unequal work loads by temporary changes in the regular assignments. The captain of the division, who is responsible for such assignments, also participates in the development of procedures used by members of his division and also by the patrol division in the preliminary investigation of crimes. Procedures that involve the patrol, records, and other divisions must, of course, be developed in cooperation with the commanding officers of the other units.

Plans of operation must also be developed by the detective captain to meet intermittent and unusual needs created by unusual criminal activity. Operational plans which are designed to uncover information concerning crimes or to effect the discovery and seizure of suspects, of persons wanted, of operating criminals, of automobiles used for criminal transportation, of tools used for criminal purposes, and of stolen property or other evidence must include tasks to be performed by the members of other divisions, principally the patrol division, and consequently these plans must be prepared in cooperation with other captains. Such plans will include special details in areas where criminals are operating, the canvass of areas or certain types of places or businesses, spot jobs, and surveillance.

Chapter 8

TRAFFIC ADMINISTRATION

Traffic control overshadows in magnitude every other police regulatory task. Practically every person in the community is involved, from the tot just able to manipulate his kiddie car on the sidewalk to the decrepit old man taking his last automobile drive by ambulance to a hospital. Automobile drivers and pedestrians, the rich and the poor, the young and the old, the good and the bad, all are inevitably affected by the diverse problems arising from the continuously growing use of the automobile. More people are injured and killed in automobile accidents than as the result of all other acts under police control combined. The economic loss from automobile accidents is greater than all other losses the police are charged with preventing. In every community this loss exceeds the total police budget. More people are disgruntled with traffic control than with police effort in any other field; traffic control causes the police more annoyance and subjects them to pressure from a greater number of sources than any other problem.

How are the police to provide a traffic control effective in accident reduction and congestion elimination that is also publicly acceptable? Suitable traffic control necessitates an understanding of the purpose of the control, the factors involved, the processes to be used, and the relative effectiveness of the several methods of effecting control.

Purpose of Police Traffic Control. Police control of highways, automobiles, and people is intended to facilitate the safe and rapid movement of automobiles and pedestrians. To this end the inconveniences, dangers, and economic losses that arise from the movement, congestion delay, stopping, and parking of vehicles must be lessened. Accidents and congestion are evidences of failure to provide safe and rapid movement. First attention should be given to accident prevention because of the pain and sorrow incident to injuries and death; inconvenience and cost, however, force attention to congestion and parking problems also.

Steps in Police Traffic Control. Control of traffic is accomplished in three steps: (1) The causes of accidents and congestion must be discovered; facts are gathered and analyzed for this purpose. (2) These causes must be remedied; changes must be made in the physical conditions that create hazards, and legislation must be enacted to regulate

drivers and pedestrians. (3) The public must be educated in the provisions of traffic laws, motorists and pedestrians must be trained in satisfactory movement habits, and compliance with regulations must be obtained—if need be, by enforcement. The police should initiate action and coordinate the efforts of other agencies that are also concerned in these activities.

The police have three tools to aid them in traffic control, *viz.*, engineering, education, and enforcement. It is the purpose of this and the following chapter to discuss how these tools may be used most effectively by the police. Since there can be no enforcement without law, the legislative process also merits attention.

Legislation. Legal regulation is needed to standardize driving and walking practices so that each motorist and pedestrian may know what is expected of him and so that each may anticipate what the others will do. It also lessens hazards by forbidding dangerous practices.

The police are usually best qualified to discover and judge the need for a traffic regulation and the feasibility of its enforcement. They should initiate and assist in drafting needed legislation; they should also review critically all proposed traffic regulations in order to protest the unnecessary and impractical. Public resentment against improper regulations, especially overregulation, is usually directed against the police, regardless of who may be responsible.

A regulation may be so difficult to enforce as not to justify its enactment for several reasons: a high degree of compliance is essential if the regulation is to accomplish its purpose; compliance failure is sometimes a greater hazard than no regulation; enforcement may require an amount of police effort out of proportion to the value of the regulation; also, disregard for one regulation breeds disrespect for all, and consequently one unenforced regulation increases the difficulty of enforcing the others; and, finally, regulations that are difficult to enforce damage police morale, prestige, and public relations.

In order to assure conformity with superior regulations, the police should promote the adoption of the provisions of the Uniform Vehicle Code, the Model Traffic Ordinance, and the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices for Streets and Highways.¹

¹ These model codes and the traffic ordinance have been revised and approved by the National Committee on Uniform Traffic Laws and Ordinances. Copies may be obtained from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. The Uniform Vehicle Code consists of: Act I: Uniform Motor Vehicle Administration, Registration, Certificate of Title and Antitheft Act. Act II: Uniform Motor Vehicle Operators' and Chauffeurs' License Act. Act III: Uniform Motor Vehicle Civil Liability Act. Act IV: Uniform Motor Vehicle Safety Responsibility Act. Act V: Uniform Act Regulating Traffic on Highways.

TRAFFIC ENGINEERING

Engineering is one of the police traffic-control tools. The purpose of traffic engineering is to design roadway facilities so as to lessen the frequency of accidents and the amount of congestion and thus facilitate safe, rapid movement.² A foolproof design of roadways that makes dangerous or improper driving difficult and congestion unlikely is the goal of the engineer.

City departments primarily concerned with the design, construction, and illumination of streets, however, do not have a continuing responsibility for their safe and effective use. They do not ignore traffic safety and facility, but this is not their primary purpose.

The police have a responsibility for the continued safe and efficient use of roadways. Providing free and safe traffic movement is one of the major police duties. It is never fully accomplished because the movement of automobiles and people results in accidents and congestion. The police should be alert for evidences of accident and congestion hazards in their day-to-day operations; they should discover the causes and initiate their correction.

The ease with which the police can accomplish their traffic purpose depends greatly on the quality of traffic-engineering work in the community. Good engineering, as for example in the location and timing of traffic signals, simplifies traffic control and frees man power for more important duties. On the other hand, poor engineering, as in the installation of many unnecessary stop signs, makes enforcement difficult, increases the accident rate, damages police prestige, and threatens satisfactory public relations.

Traffic-engineering Activities. The need for engineering skills as a tool in police traffic control is clarified by analyzing traffic-engineering tasks. The tasks may be divided into two categories: general traffic engineering and police traffic engineering. The primary purpose of both is to effect the safe and easy movement of automobile and pedestrian traffic. Their goals, however, are accomplished by different methods; many of the techniques used in one are not used in the other.

General traffic engineering builds safety and facility into the highway system; it includes large-scale, long-range planning and construction of major improvements in the street and highway system. New streets, elevated highways, grade separations, and other elements of the road system that require much time, money, and effort in their planning, promotion, and accomplishment are examples. While traffic control is simplified by general traffic engineering, responsibility for the planning, promotion, and construction of large-scale roadway projects must rest on some agency more suitably designed for this purpose than the police.

Police traffic engineering, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the discovery and remedy of accident and congestion hazards. Surveys, studies, compliance checks, and the tabulation of accident and enforcement facts provide data relating to accidents, traffic flow and volume, and parking and driving practices. These data must be analyzed to reveal physical conditions that contribute to accidents and congestion. Unsatisfactory conditions may frequently be remedied by the use of signs, signals, markings, islands, median strips, intersection redesign, loading and parking facilities, and street illumination. The use of some of these facilities must be authorized by legislation; the analysis may reveal other needs for legal regulation. Regulations are ineffective without public education and enforcement; the analysis may also reveal the need for more selective programs of education and enforcement.

The Traffic Analyst (Police Traffic Engineer). Decisions relating to any of the actions listed above should be based on analysis of need by a traffic analyst who thus assists in providing a well-rounded, wisely directed program of police traffic control. He should be a qualified traffic engineer. Solutions to traffic problems attempted without traffic-engineering skills are little more than guesses and often prove to be expensive experiments.

A traffic engineer is as essential in the continuing service of discovering and correcting hazards as he is in designing the road system to assure maximum safety and facility in its use. Police traffic-engineering activities are an integral part of the traffic-control program; without them the police cannot provide maximum safety in traffic movement with minimum inconvenience and delay. Police traffic engineering represents the use of the engineering tool by the police. A police traffic engineer must be appointed to perform these essential tasks and to effect their integration into the police program of traffic control.

Police Control Essential. The following traffic-engineering tasks are so closely related to police control of traffic that they should be placed under the police department.

Discovering the need for, proposing, and promoting traffic ordinances and the efficient use of signs, signals, and markings for the regulation of automobiles and pedestrians.

The detection of dangerous intersections, streets, and districts and the compilation and analysis of traffic facts relating to them in order to ascertain and eliminate the contributing factors.

Establishing the need for improved street lighting, through ways, bypasses, one-way and restricted streets, and median strips, safety islands, and other devices for channelizing traffic flow.

Evaluating parking needs and proposing suitable parking restrictions; ascertaining safe speeds on curves, straight stretches of road, and the approach to intersections.

Organizing and directing traffic surveys; checking the observance of speed, sign, signal, turning, passing, and other regulations.

Analyzing accident reports and enforcement data, and ascertaining the speed of vehicles from skid marks leading to the point of collision.

A traffic engineer should be assigned to the police department for the following reasons:

1. In order to hold the police responsible for traffic conditions, they must have charge of this basic process in its control.
2. A traffic engineer who is attached to some other department cannot successfully aid in the coordination of all phases of police traffic control.
3. If the traffic engineer's office is removed from the police department by distance and lack of control, its facilities are not used to full advantage by the police in planning enforcement and educational activities and in checking on the suitability of signs, signals, and markings. Reports on traffic surveys and studies by an independent department are sometimes not received for months after being requested.
4. The physical separation of the traffic engineer's office from the police department necessitates a duplication of accident reports that may be avoided by locating the traffic engineer's office at police headquarters. This proximity of location is sometimes justification for assigning him to the police department.
5. In cities that assign the traffic engineer to some other department, policemen frequently undertake police traffic engineering tasks for which they do not have the necessary training. This practice is further evidence of the need for a police traffic engineer; these tasks deserve his skill.

6. A traffic engineer not attached to the police department lacks the benefit of police experience in discovering and analyzing traffic problems. The police are usually the first to discover hazardous locations, and their practical experience enables them to predict the effect and enforceability of regulatory ordinances, signs, signals, and markings.

The Police Traffic Engineer. Traffic control is a primary police task. It is more important than the process of traffic engineering, which assists in its accomplishment. Police traffic engineering must be carried on by the police department if it is to provide safe and expeditious traffic flow. A traffic engineer should be attached to the staff of the traffic division under the direct control of the head of that unit.

Controversy as to where traffic engineers should be located in the organization structure of municipal government results from a failure to differentiate between general traffic-engineering and police traffic-engineering tasks. In cities that have a traffic engineer engaged in general traffic-engineering tasks, it is not proposed that this official should be assigned to the police department. It is recommended, however, that a traffic engineer be assigned to the police traffic division to serve as a traffic analyst and to perform police traffic-engineering tasks.

The police traffic engineer is the one to discover points of hazard, analyze them, and develop their solutions. How far he will carry the processes of solution will be influenced by local circumstances. He may merely indicate by a report the action that should be taken, such as to lengthen a turning radius, widen a portion of roadway, channelize a confusion area, and so on, and the city engineer's office may design the proposal in detail. Since the executive head of the city and, in some instances, the governing board must be convinced of the wisdom of the proposal, the police traffic engineer will sometimes develop the details to demonstrate the feasibility of the plan. However, he should not design, build, or supervise construction or installation; he should only ascertain the traffic needs, and the construction or installation should be undertaken by the agency assigned such tasks. The police traffic engineer should also serve as a liaison officer between the police and other departments and agencies that are concerned with matters related to traffic-engineering problems.

The Municipal Traffic Engineer. The need for a traffic engineer in a city is determined by the seriousness of the accident and congestion problem and by the extent that its solution is susceptible to engineering treatment. The need is influenced by population and area, automobile registration and mileage, traffic volume and speed, and especially by the

street plan, including the width, design, and parallelism of streets, the regularity and frequency of cross streets, and the design of intersections.

It is not within the province of this book to inquire into the relative merits of placing the municipal traffic engineer in the city engineer's office, the department of public works, or a separate traffic commission. The point made is simply this: Regardless of how many traffic engineers the city may employ and where they may be placed, a police traffic engineer is needed to serve as an analyst in the traffic division to assure that engineering efforts are coordinated with the traffic efforts of the department and a well-rounded program of traffic control is maintained.

Small communities have little need for general traffic engineering, and the city engineer's office may assume this function. Need for a police traffic engineer develops before the need for a general traffic engineer, and a competent police traffic engineer may aid the city engineer's office, the city planning commission, and other city departments with general traffic-engineering problems.

The application of traffic engineering to traffic problems involves not only physical construction and alteration of streets, but also public education concerning traffic problems and enforcement of traffic regulations by the police. Compliance with regulations requires a public appreciation of the purpose and value of traffic regulations. Public education, therefore, is essential in traffic control.

PUBLIC EDUCATION

Statistics indicate that the human factor, the willingness of drivers and pedestrians to take unwise risks, is the cause of the large majority of automobile accidents. Defects in roadways and automobiles, physical defects of motorists and pedestrians, and lack of driver and pedestrian skill are contributory factors in some traffic accidents. The majority of traffic accidents, however, occur when there is no defect in the driver, equipment, or roadway, and they involve the skilled rather than the unskilled driver. The contributing factor in these accidents may be called attitude; it also aggravates congestion problems.

Driver Attitude. Attitude is the state of mind that influences conduct for good or bad. An improper attitude induces violations that represent bad driving manners; the guilty motorist is finally involved in an accident. An improper driving attitude causes over 80 per cent of all accidents because it is an overlapping cause; the potency of each contributing factor is influenced by the attitude of the motorist and may be compensated by a good attitude to the point that the importance of the factor becomes relatively insignificant. A driver with physical defects

but with a proper attitude may drive a defective vehicle through hazardous locations in relative safety; he may be a more successful motorist than the man free from physical defects and possessing a perfect vehicle whose attitude results in bad driving practices.

Some violations that cause accidents and congestion result from ignorance of the regulation, some from lack of driver skill, but the great majority are the direct result of a selfish attitude that causes the motorist to disregard the safety and convenience of others. The most fruitful direction of police effort, therefore, is toward the correction of the unsatisfactory attitudes of drivers.

Winning Compliance. Traffic control is effected by persuading motorists and pedestrians to comply with the provisions of traffic laws, safe driving practices are thus assured. Compliance with regulations is won by public support; the public must understand and approve both the purpose of the regulation and the method used in effecting observance. The police should win compliance (1) by informing the public of the best practices of driving and walking, and of the nature and purpose of the regulation and its effectiveness in reducing accidents and congestion; (2) by the use of admonitions, as warnings, and instructions but not as rebukes or reprimands, and (3) but only as the first two fail to accomplish the purpose, by punishment in the form of revocations of license, jail sentences, or fines.

Effectiveness of Education. For each dollar expended, public education offers greater immediate results in preventing accidents than either engineering or enforcement. Important engineering changes to eliminate traffic frictions require time-consuming and costly major construction projects. Even such relatively minor undertakings as signal installations and intersection redesign are quite expensive and frequently require considerable installation time. The enforcement of traffic regulations by the presence of a policeman and by arrest and punishment of the offender is expensive in terms of salary and motor-equipment operating costs, and the police frequently pay a still higher price in terms of damage to public good will. Decrease in the accident rate following rigid enforcement results from the publicity incident thereto as well as from the actual punishment of the offender.³ The educational benefits of the publicity may be gained without the prosecution of large numbers of motorists, which may be both unnecessary and unwise. A well-rounded program of education reaches more people than does an enforcement program because it affects every citizen in the community. The police have media at their disposal to win support by education that may be

See, however, comment by Sir Archibald Holdein on the undesirability of publicity on prosecution, p. 176.

used at little or no cost; the subject matter is news, and other agencies, also interested in public safety and traffic control, are willing to help.

Public Education Objectives. Public education in traffic safety should be directed at two objectives: (1) winning public understanding of police traffic problems and support of the programs, policies, and methods used in their solution and (2) improving habits of safety among individual drivers, pedestrians, and school children. Educational programs should be designed to accomplish these purposes. They should be specific and forthright; little is accomplished by vague generalities.

The first objective is attained by explaining the department's purpose, the relationship between the accident rate and enforcement, the reason for selective enforcement, the need for engineering improvements, the results of engineering and enforcement failure, and the progress and effectiveness of the police traffic program. The public is thus convinced of the need for action. For example, public information on the accident results of inadequate street lighting will promote its improvement; a diminished accident rate from improved street illumination at one location will promote similar improvement at other locations when the facts are made public.

The second objective, to influence motorists and pedestrians to move safely, is perhaps the primary purpose of public education in traffic safety. It is attained by improving their skill, increasing their knowledge of regulations and sound practices, and promoting the desire to move with consideration for the safety and convenience of other people. This is accomplished by training in superior driving and walking practices; by disseminating information to assure that the public understands traffic regulations and appreciates their purpose; and by stimulating an active public disapproval of noncompliance with safe practices. Of these the most important is the development of attitudes that favor safe practices and condemn behavior that is without regard to the comfort, convenience, and safety of others. Man's great desire for public approval and favorable recognition causes him to conform to public opinion.

The second objective of public education is also the purpose of enforcement. Enforcement, however, is intended principally for the driver who demonstrates by willful and persistent violations a driving attitude not amenable to correction by the education process. There is not a sharp line of demarcation between education and enforcement; enforcement is a form of education for those who will learn in no other way. For the purpose of this discussion, however, educational processes directed against the individual violator are considered enforcement in contrast to those educational activities which are directed at large numbers.

Education Must Precede Enforcement. Enforcement not preceded and accompanied by a thorough education of the public in the regulation is almost invariably unsuccessful. Punishment for a violation that results from ignorance of the regulation usually creates an undesirable attitude and ill will toward the police. Inadvertent violations of this kind indicate a need for more adequate signs, markings, and the dissemination of regulatory information. Disposition of these inadvertent violators should be directed primarily at their education.

Police Participation in Education Essential. The police should participate in the coordination of the educational efforts of all interested community agencies. Public education is the most important activity of the local safety organization; public opinion is the device by which it attains its objectives. The police should participate actively in the organization of a local safety group and in its program of education; they discover needs and obtain facts to aid the local safety group in establishing an effective program.⁴

Police participation in all phases of public safety education has important values; in addition to stimulating safe practices, valuable contacts are made by the police which have favorable public reactions. Especially important is this in police relationships with juveniles.

A program of public education requires man power and considerable effort. In small departments it may be carried on as a part-time activity by some designated member of the traffic division, as for example, the traffic engineer, the chief accident investigator, or the traffic captain. In departments of more than 150 men, one officer should devote full time to these duties.

Public Relations Activities. Some departments, recognizing that each operating unit needs to inform the public regarding their problems and activities, have an auxiliary unit engaged in coordinating and directing all police public relations and educational activities. Because of the importance of the traffic problem and the need for public support in its solution, the traffic division should take a more active part in this work than any other division. The duties and procedures of the public relations officer are discussed in detail in Chap. 22 and to a lesser extent in Chap. 9.

SPECIAL OPERATING METHODS

A number of special operations may be undertaken by the traffic division to increase their effectiveness in traffic control. The investigation of traffic accidents and the use of public-address equipment, junior

Organizing the community for traffic safety is discussed in Chap. 24.

traffic patrols, and traffic-violator schools play important parts in a well-rounded traffic program.

Accident Investigation. Facts relating to automobile accidents are needed for four purposes: (1) to reveal hazards resulting from the unsuitability or inadequacy of the roadway, adjacent areas, signs, signals, markings, and regulations, in order that they may be corrected, or safeguarded by selective patrol and enforcement; (2) to discover the types of violations that are the most frequent contributing causes, so that the enforcement program may be made more precisely selective; (3) to ascertain classes of individuals (by age, occupation, or section of residence, for example) who are involved in accidents, so that the educational and enforcement program may be more effectively directed, and (4) to obtain evidence of violations for the purpose of convicting the driver.

Serious Accidents. The conviction of the driver is important in accidents involving the drinking driver and in those resulting in manslaughter and hit-and-run violations and, in some cases, personal injury. In other accidents, however, there seems to be no greater justification for the conviction of the accident driver than for the conviction of a driver guilty of the same violation that did not result in an accident; the first-accident driver is not so likely to have a second accident as is the repeater-violator to have an accident,⁵ and the cost of the accident stands as a heavy penalty to the motorist for his carelessness.

A complete investigation of accidents, including measurements and photographs of the roadway and adjacent areas, of skid marks, the exact place of impact, and detailed statements from drivers and all witnesses is a costly undertaking that is justified principally to gain a conviction; information essential to meet the first three purposes of accident investigation can be obtained in suitable detail and with satisfactory accuracy in less serious accidents by less time-consuming methods. Detailed measurements of the roadway and significant parts of the adjacent area are made by the police traffic engineer in the preparation of a condition diagram of an accident-frequent location; properly prepared reports that do not contain exact measurements in less serious accidents provide the information needed in the preparation of a collision diagram and in

summarizing the types of contributing violations and the classes of accident drivers.

Less Serious Accidents. An officer sent to the scene of a less serious accident should assist in untangling traffic and should obtain the identification of the drivers and automobiles and essential information regarding the circumstances to enable his preparation of an accident report; he should also instruct the drivers to fill out the required accident report forms at headquarters. Less serious accidents reported to police headquarters by the drivers some time after the occurrence do not justify on-the-scene investigation. The action described above will fulfill the first three purposes of accident investigation; further action is not required except as it may appear necessary to obtain a conviction.

The Accident Investigators. Traffic-accident investigation is the application to the traffic field of the investigation methods and principles that have long been used in crime detection work. Accident investigations should be made by special investigators and beat officers used in the investigation of crimes (see page 121 above), because these investigations involve the same problems and require the same techniques and equipment as the preliminary investigation of crimes.⁶ The special investigator should be sent immediately to the scenes of all injury accidents, and the beat officer should decide whether the investigation requires the services of the investigator in order to strengthen a case for prosecution. In noninjury accidents only the beat officer need be sent (with assistance if needed to direct traffic). If the beat officer recognizes the need for prosecution in such an accident, he should request the services of the special investigator.

Chief accident investigator. Departments having more than 150 men require a chief accident investigator on the day shift to follow up on accident investigations in the same manner that a detective continues the preliminary investigation of crimes by patrolmen, and to assure by staff inspection the adequacy of investigations by patrolmen and the special investigators. In smaller departments, the special investigator on the day tour of duty may perform these duties. The chief accident investigator is responsible for the complete and suitable investigation of accidents by the special investigators and beat officers, although he has no direct control over them. He personally undertakes the continuance of the investigation of hit-and-run cases and of serious accidents that result, or are likely to result, in fatalities. In the accomplishment of these tasks, he utilizes the services of the special investigators and patrolmen, as is done by the detective division (see Chaps. 4 and 7).

In departments where the full time of the chief accident investigator is not required in following through accident investigations, hit-and-run cases, and in making staff inspections of these activities, he may, as an aide to the traffic captain, also inspect the condition of signs, signals, and markings, and the traffic performance of other members of the department, thus assuring continuous execution and adherence to procedures. Some of the following additional duties may be assigned to the chief accident investigator in small departments when the limited traffic staff makes it necessary and time allows: planning enforcement activities of the patrol division and of the special traffic squad, analysis of accident records to determine educational and engineering needs, analysis of enforcement records to determine the adequacy and selectivity of enforcement pressure, the supervision of a junior traffic patrol, instruction in a traffic-violator school, and the direction of public education.

Public-address Equipment. A public-address car may be profitably used to call the attention of offenders to their violations.⁷ Such admonition has greater effectiveness than a direct warning as it serves to educate all who hear, but care must be used to prevent unnecessary humiliation or embarrassment.

The public-address car used at signalized intersections with a large volume of pedestrian traffic is an effective means of educating pedestrians. Drivers, likewise, may have their attention called to bad practices while the public-address car is in motion or while it is strategically parked.

The public-address equipment also has great crowd-control value. It is useful in directing and controlling mass pedestrian traffic at athletic events and other public gatherings, to clear the route for parades, to move onlookers back onto the sidewalk, and to control crowds of curiosity seekers at the scenes of explosions, fires, and other accidents. In combat tactics against mobs during strikes and riots, the public-address equipment is of advantage in directing police action and in attracting and holding the attention of the crowd in order to cool its temper by a rational presentation of facts.

Public-address equipment is profitably used in public education to present accident facts and other information. Children are particularly attracted to such presentations. A phonographic device permitting the playing of records through the loud-speaker system attracts children to the car during school recess or in neighborhoods where children play in the street. Cautioning children against playing in the street and other dangerous practices should be a regular service of this car while

Loud-speaker equipment may also be installed on three-wheeled motorcycles (see Chap. 16).

patrolling. This police attention has a desirable effect on relations not only with the children but also with their parents.

Junior Traffic Patrols. Junior traffic patrols, through the supervision and direction of selected schoolboys organized and trained for this purpose, provide safety for children crossing streets to and from school and develop a sense of civic responsibility in the children. The resultant relationship between the police and school children promotes friendship and respect for the police. Motorists, parents, and school authorities approve the operation of the patrol because it diminishes the danger of injury to the school children, it makes them safety conscious, and trains them in discipline.

The police department should promote the development of the junior traffic patrol and supervise its operation. The training and organization of the boys, which is a continuous process because the membership changes from time to time, should be a police responsibility. One officer, with such aid as the size of the community warrants, should be placed in charge to oversee the operation of all junior traffic squads, advise the school principal in the selection of patrol members on the basis of scholarship and conduct, supervise the maintenance and distribution of equipment, and keep a membership roll.

Junior traffic patrols should be used in the control of vehicular traffic. To expedite this control, the boys should be supplied with signal staffs tipped with 18-inch metal disks, painted red with the word "Stop" in white letters, and the boy sergeant of each squad should be equipped with a whistle. The junior traffic patrol holds the school children at the curb until the boy sergeant observes a lull in the traffic flow; he then blows his whistle to attract the attention of the motorist and signals his squad to swing their staffs across the street, holding them so that the disks are plainly visible to the approaching motorist. The children are not permitted to step from the sidewalk at this time but are held in check by the junior patrolmen until the sergeant has determined that traffic has stopped, when he signals the children to cross the street.

The signal staff provides a valuable service. Its distinctive appearance and attention-demanding color increases the visibility of the patrol, even while held upright with the face of the disk parallel to the curb in the position which authorizes normal traffic flow, thus serving to warn the motorist of the presence of school children. When used to stop traffic, it makes unnecessary the convoying of the children across the street by a schoolboy patrolman, and consequently, it increases the effectiveness of the squad and the safety of all school children. The effectiveness of the patrol is further enhanced by outfitting them in conspicuous caps,

sweaters, raincoats, and other garments. Individual, conspicuously dressed schoolboy patrolmen assigned to less important crossings two or three blocks from the school are useful in assisting the smaller children to cross streets safely.

Many cities enact ordinances forbidding motorists to drive through the junior traffic patrol signal. The license numbers of automobiles in violation of this regulation are reported by the junior traffic patrol to the police who call the violation to the attention of the offending motorist and explain to him the purpose and operation of the school patrol. Drivers are prosecuted for flagrant violations.

Traffic-violator Schools. The school for the traffic violator is a child of the great American depression, during which the automobile continued a prime necessity for those on relief. Traffic courts could send indigent drivers to jail in lieu of a fine for minor infractions, but the trivial character of many violations made this procedure unwarranted because of its vicious influence on the attitude of the victim whose sagging morale needed bolstering. The other alternative, which made privileged motorists of the indigent, was to place the violator on probation or suspend his sentence which was usually the equivalent of outright dismissal. The traffic-violator school proved to be a solution to this problem. It also served to inform and instruct these and other drivers in traffic regulations and sound driving practices.

Court Cooperation Essential. A traffic-violator school cannot operate efficiently without court cooperation. The court must know that the school exists, why it exists, and the type of cases that should be referred to it for treatment. Special legislation is not needed for a traffic-violator school if enrollment is made a condition of probation. Failure to comply with the school program results in the return of the offender to court as a violator of the condition of his probation. Some police departments offer selected traffic violators, without the formality of a court appearance, a choice between attending the traffic-violator school or posting a bond.

Public School Assistance. The public school systems of some communities provide instructors in traffic-violator schools, and in others the instruction is by the police department. Teaching experience is an asset, and a thorough knowledge of the traffic rules and regulations and the best driving practices is essential. If a police officer conducts the course, he should be in uniform so that his contact with the students will clearly be one between the police and the motorist.

Multiple Sessions. Some departments provide several sessions of the traffic school because of the advantages in teaching a class of fewer than 30 students. Usually some sessions are held at different hours of the day to accommodate persons whose work time may conflict with the

regular school schedule. When several classes are provided, student drivers should be assigned according to homogeneous characteristics. This is especially important in reference to age, and some departments reserve one class for juveniles. Special notices may be served on juvenile offenders to appear in traffic school with the consent of their parents and without the formality of a court appearance (see Chap. 12).

Bicycle-rider Schools. Similar schools are conducted by some departments for children violators of bicycle-riding regulations. Some departments provide instruction in safe bicycle practices to children at the schools or at police headquarters; some also promote bicycle-riding clubs organized for safety.

High School Safety Programs. Many high schools now recognize their responsibility in providing driver training to their students; dual-control automobiles are sometimes used for practice after classroom instruction. In some communities the police participate in the promotion of this training as well as in the more general training in safety in the lower grades, frequently providing instructors for this purpose. Many high schools organize traffic-safety committees to promote desirable attitudes and safe driving and walking practices among the students.

THE TRAFFIC DIVISION

The creation of a traffic division stimulates effective police traffic control by placing responsibility for its accomplishment on one or more officers who devote full time to this task. A traffic division assures attention to traffic problems in proportion to their importance by providing a broad, well-rounded, continuous, and effective program. It increases the application of police effort to traffic control by enlisting the services of the nontraffic police. It provides some advantages of specialization, *viz.*, the selection of qualified officers, the promotion of skill and ability, and the development and application of special techniques and procedures.

A traffic division may be needed before the need of supervising street personnel engaged in traffic control justifies its creation. While the patrol division may perform street-traffic duties with reasonable satisfaction under the indirect control exercised by some commanding officer of that division who is responsible for traffic staff planning and inspection (see Chap. 4), these staff duties necessitate the full time of a man in larger departments, even though the operation of traffic plans and the performance of traffic tasks remains the duty of the patrol division.

Usually, however, when the appointment of a full-time man is justified to plan and inspect police traffic activities, there are a number of patrol-

men devoting full time to the performance of police traffic duties, such as the regulation of parking and of traffic at intersections and cross-walks, who then usually become the street personnel of the traffic division. To these are added other men required to perform necessary analytical and educational tasks and such special operations as the investigation of accidents, the operation of public-address equipment, the supervision of the junior traffic patrol, and in some departments the maintenance of signs, signals, and markings.

Congestion Assignments. The portion of the total traffic force to be assigned to intersection and street-crossing duty and to overtime parking violations is influenced by many factors over which the police have no control. These include street characteristics, the suitability of regulatory devices, the volume of vehicular and pedestrian traffic, and the public demand for this regulation. Such assignments rob the force of men who would otherwise be available for accident-preventive duties, and hence mechanical devices should be used to minimize the need for officer control.

The prevention of accidents is more important in most communities than the congestion problem, which involves public convenience rather than safety. The police, therefore, should use every form of ingenuity to shift their efforts from the problem of congestion to the problem of accident prevention in order to maintain a suitable balance between the less important and the more important. The congestion problem, of course, must be properly met, but the department that attaches undue importance to it will so dissipate its energy as to leave insufficient strength for a proper accident-prevention job. A safe rule to follow is to use no more officers on routine duties arising from congestion than are necessary to prevent too many accidents and to eliminate too frequent clogging of the easy flow of traffic.

Intersection and Crosswalk Duty. The extent to which the regular nontraffic patrol force is used in short-time, peak-congestion tasks influences the need for traffic officers for these assignments. When a traffic officer is not available for the performance of these duties, the usual part-time nature of crosswalk and intersection traffic duty makes desirable the assignment of the patrolman on the beat up to the point where it requires so much of his time that it seriously interferes with his regular patrol duties. The devotion of nearly the full time of an officer to such traffic tasks indicates that he should be assigned to the traffic division, unless his continuous supervision is possible only through assignment to the patrol division (see page 54).

Parking Regulations. Parking regulations prohibit such practices as overtime parking, double parking, and parking in such prohibited spaces

as alleys and restricted curb zones. Parking meters facilitate the enforcement of time-limit parking; they diminish the man power needed by making unnecessary a regular schedule and one round since they eliminate the task of chalking or otherwise marking cars to establish the time the car was parked except where such checks are needed to discover the "sleeper."

The enforcement of time-limit and most other parking regulations requires the assignment of officers who devote most or all of their time to this duty. Some parking regulations may be enforced by officers assigned to intersection or crosswalk duty, and officers assigned to regulate parking should assist at intersections or other points where traffic congestion may require attention.

An officer charged with the enforcement of parking regulations should be furnished a three-wheeled motorcycle; he is usually assigned to a route that enables continuous movement without backtracking. In large congested areas that require the attention of several officers, greater police attention to streets having more difficult traffic problems and greater robbery hazards may be assured by an arrangement of routes that enables a greater number of officers to travel along and to cross these thoroughfares more frequently. A more complete coverage is thereby provided, and the conspicuousness of traffic patrol increases its availability to citizens and makes its presence more apparent to criminals. This is especially desirable in cities where the daytime general patrol is completely motorized.

Regulation of Moving Traffic. The primary responsibility for the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations should rest on the patrol division. The enforcement of moving-traffic regulations does not require special skill and ability, and it is not dissimilar to other tasks performed by motorized patrolmen. Since the necessity for this enforcement is not restricted in time or place, the complete coverage provided by the 24-hour jurisdiction-wide general patrol makes important the application of this force to the regulation of moving traffic. Because of the large number engaged at the task when the primary responsibility for enforcement of moving-traffic regulations is given to patrol, a high level of enforcement may be maintained without imposing an unreasonable burden on any one officer. Consequently, a traffic squad devoting its full and exclusive attention to the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations usually is not justified.⁸

The manner in which traffic accidents are used as a factor in the distribution of the patrol force among the shifts and the beats is explained in the Appendix.

Special Enforcement Squad. Aid in the enforcement of laws regulating the movement of vehicles, however, may be provided by a special traffic squad created primarily to meet unusual traffic and crime needs. When not engaged at its primary task, this squad may be used to supplement enforcement of moving-traffic regulations by the patrol division. Public assemblages, such as athletic events, political and other public meetings, street carnivals, parades, and funerals create an unusual need for traffic control beyond the capacity of traffic personnel when the regulation of moving traffic is made the exclusive responsibility of the patrol division.⁹ A similarly irregular and intermittent need for police service is also found in the field of crime control when unusual criminal activity during certain hours on some days in a certain section of the community justifies a special detail of officers. To draw on the patrol force to meet these intermittent needs in traffic and crime control is undesirable because to do so weakens the patrol strength by requiring one officer to cover more than one beat. This special squad may also be used as a reserve to be drawn on to fill vacancies created by illness, annual leaves, and separations from the service.¹⁰

Since the needs are irregular, there are times when the services of a squad created to meet unusual needs in traffic and crime control are not needed in either field, and it may then be assigned to patrol during the hours and in areas where a current high accident rate indicates the greatest need to supplement enforcement by the patrol division of regulations governing moving vehicles. The selectivity of enforcement is thereby increased.

Officers of the special traffic squad should be assigned to routes containing approximately equal numbers of accidents during the hours of the shift so that work loads will be nearly equal. Assignment to designated areas also fixes responsibility. Assignment to routes facilitates supervision and focuses the patrol on roadways having a heavy traffic volume and a high accident frequency and is usually best suited for traffic patrol, especially when the force is limited. Overlapping routes are undesirable; they make difficult the placing of responsibility for accident reduction and provide an opportunity for the officers to spend time together, usually not in the performance of traffic patrol duties. A greater concentration of man power may be provided by dividing the usual route.

The junior traffic patrol, Boy Scouts, and other organizations sometimes aid the police at these events as well as in the distribution of safety literature, in pedestrian warnings, in operating exhibits and displays, and in traffic surveys. For a further discussion of citizen participation, see Chap. 23.

This special squad is described in greater detail in Chap. 25.

Street Supervision of Traffic Officers. The necessity of supervision requires that traffic officers, like other officers, be under the continuous and direct control of a sergeant. The number of officers on street duty who may be supervised adequately by one sergeant is influenced by variable factors. Most important of these is the nature and relative location of the duties of the officers. Motorized officers are more difficult to supervise when assigned to large beats. Officers assigned to the small beats used in the enforcement of parking regulations are relatively easy to supervise, and the supervision of officers on fixed posts involves no serious problem. If officers devote full-time to downtown traffic duties (crosswalk, intersection, and parking), 4 to 12 require the supervision of one sergeant, and 12 to 24 require two sergeants. If the number is fewer than 4, it is usually advisable to place them under the direct control of the patrol division for supervision by the patrol sergeant.

Staff Inspection by the Traffic Division. Planning and staff inspection in the field of traffic control is the responsibility of the traffic division. Coordination of the traffic police and the regular patrol force in traffic control makes essential a staff inspection that checks on the traffic accomplishments of the patrol division; the traffic administrative staff must see that traffic assignments for the patrol division are made and carried out. Special attention should be given to the following problems.

1. The maintenance of an adequate enforcement index and a proper degree of selectivity in enforcement.
2. Continuance of assignments. The traffic division may request the services of a patrolman for crosswalk or intersection duty during certain hours of the day at a certain location. Due to lack of interest, inattention to duty, or the press of time, attention to this assignment may be permitted to lag, both by the patrolman and by his sergeant. For example, there may be a transfer of assignment of beat officers, and the patrol sergeant may neglect to instruct the new officer regarding this task, or the services of an officer under the direct control of the patrol division devoting full time to traffic tasks may be diverted by his superior from the traffic duties to other tasks which at the moment may appear to be more important, and he may not be returned to his traffic assignment when the need for attention to other tasks has been relieved.

3. The continued use of adopted techniques. Special investigators and beat officers are trained in accident investigation procedures, patrol officers are instructed in techniques to be used in approaching a traffic violator and in disposing of the incident, and officers on crosswalk and intersection duty and officers marking cars for overtime parking are

trained in methods to be used, but sloppy procedures are sometimes substituted and their use must be discovered and corrected.

Difficulties experienced in the proper and continued execution of traffic plans by the patrol division arise from a lagging interest or the substitution of tasks deemed more important, and continued performance of assigned tasks in the prescribed manner is assured only by a continuing inspection.

Traffic-division Personnel. The traffic division may be limited in personnel to a headquarters staff, including officers in charge of a traffic-violator school and a program of public education, and an analyst charged with staff inspection duties. The only officers assigned to street duty may be the following: (1) the supervisor of the junior traffic patrol and the chief accident investigator, whose time-consuming duties usually limit street tasks to these fields; (2) the traffic-engineering staff which makes studies of accident-frequent locations, observation checks, and other surveys; (3) full-time officers assigned to the enforcement of time-limit parking regulations and to crosswalk and intersection duties, although these officers may be assigned to the patrol division when necessary to assure continuous supervision; (4) the special traffic squad, previously mentioned, that is used part-time for the enforcement of traffic regulations; and (5) one or more officers to serve as aides to the head of the division in checking on the performance of street officers having traffic assignments and on signs, signals, and markings in need of maintenance service.¹¹ The traffic division, therefore, may be primarily a planning and inspectional agency rather than a field force.

Traffic Records. Traffic records enable the police to evaluate accomplishments by individuals and organization units and to appraise the effectiveness of their traffic-control program. They assure attention to, and provide an administrative control over, day-to-day operations by the assignment and follow-up of incidents that require police service. Data relating to accidents, enforcement, and engineering provide facts to replace guesswork, and give the traffic administrator a confidence of certainty in understanding traffic problems, in wisely planning and directing their control, and in checking on the execution of his plans. The preparation of useful data requires (1) the gathering of facts relating to individual cases (accidents, arrests, or engineering), (2) the derivation from these facts of statistical information in useful summary form, and (3) the intelligent analysis of this statistical information for planning purposes.

Duties under item 5 may be assigned to the chief accident investigator in departments of suitable size.

The administrative staff of the traffic division must have these data and some operating records in their possession if they are to use them. The most effective results are obtained when the traffic division receives from the records division useful summaries and copies of some records.¹²

Indexes used as yardsticks should be based on the injury-accident rate.¹³ Since the goal is the reduction of accidents, any variation in this rate is an indication of the effectiveness of the program. The administrative head should receive periodic tabulations summarized in indexes that show the ratio between the number of citations (and equivalent in notices of violation or warnings) for moving-traffic violations and the number of injury accidents; the percentage of citations and other prosecutions that results in convictions; the severity of the penalty assessed; the ratio between convictions for moving violations and injury accidents; and the percentage of drivers who observe traffic regulations. Summaries should also be provided containing information relating to engineering and educational work. Of special importance to the traffic engineer is a procedure that results in a notification to him from the records office of locations that have experienced an accident frequency in excess of a minimum number set by him.

The administrative staff, by the analysis of suitable facts, is able to detect hazards inherent in certain locations; to discover regulations unsuited to existing conditions; to learn where, when, and why accidents are occurring, and where, when, and what kind of arrests are being made; to detect accident and violation repeaters; to ascertain the degree and quality of enforcement and to compare it with past records; to determine the success or failure of prosecution; to discover the percentage of tickets fixed, by whom they are fixed, and, to some extent, why they are being handled irregularly. Analysis of traffic records enables the administrator to discover whether the program is effecting the desired end or whether modifications are necessary. Traffic records bring attention to changed conditions that require alteration in engineering or enforcement policy, and they also make apparent the efficiency or inefficiency of an individual officer and of a squad.

Maintenance. It is not important that the police department have under their control the maintenance and installation of sign, signals, and markings, although the police traffic engineer should determine the type that should be installed, the location, and the need for repair, renovation,

The extent to which the traffic division should participate in the maintenance and operation of traffic records is discussed in *Police Records*, pp. 139-142.

See *ibid.*, pp. 224-225 for a discussion of the reliability of the injury-accident rate.

and so on. The construction and maintenance work may be done by a department of public works, although there is no particular disadvantage to this work being handled by the police. If traffic maintenance is done by the police department, it is likewise unimportant whether it is performed under the direct control of the traffic division or by a central police maintenance division, as discussed in Chap. 15.

Chapter 9

TRAFFIC ENFORCEMENT

Public education will not win compliance from all motorists. Enforcement procedures must be used in dealing with nonconformists who persist in improper driving practices. Enforcement is not limited to punitive measures based on arrest and prosecution but includes such nonpunitive procedures as active and conspicuous patrol, warnings, and traffic-violator schools. These assure a reasonable compliance with regulations and are usually more acceptable to motorists than fines and jail sentences. Punitive enforcement is justified when these methods fail; the extent of punishment necessary to effect a favorable accident rate is somewhat in inverse ratio to the amount of nonpunitive activity.

Punishment, however, may not be eliminated as a traffic-control device. Some persons are amenable only to punitive treatment, and punitive measures are also needed to restrict the driving of those who are incompetent because of physical or emotional defects or a lack of skill. License revocations and jail sentences for the more wantonly vicious drivers are essential for the protection of the general public. The threat of prosecution is an important control mechanism.

LIMITED EFFECTIVENESS OF PUNITIVE ENFORCEMENT

The effect on the attitude of motorists of methods used in the enforcement of traffic regulations must be considered because public support favorably influences driving habits. The customary police procedure, on observing a violation of a criminal law or (to a lesser extent) a regulatory measure, is to arrest and prosecute the offender. This procedure, however, is not so effective against the traffic violator as against the criminal because the public frequently does not favor rigid traffic enforcement, although nearly all approve the punishment of criminals. Punishment will not correct the physical defects of the motorist or his car, though it may influence the owner's attitude. Punishment by itself will not increase driving skill, and if unfairly applied, it may create or aggravate an improper driving attitude. Rigid punitive enforcement will fail unless it is based on a sound foundation of favorable public sentiment created by suitable public education. No permanent good

may be expected from a control based on fear when the majority does not favor the regulation.¹ Traffic laws, therefore, should be enforced with a minimum punishment so that the unfavorable effect of punitive treatment on the attitude of the driver will not destroy the enforcement tolerance of the community.

Enforcement Tolerance. The enforcement tolerance of a community is the amount or degree of enforcement that may be maintained indefinitely with public acquiescence. It is determined by such factors as the general temperament of the community, its leaders, the press, and the reputation of the department. It is influenced, on the one hand, by the public good will and understanding attained by the police, and on the other hand, by the drain resulting from unpopular police activities. Public disapproval of traffic enforcement arises from a lack of understanding of its purpose and value, from a conviction that it is unnecessary, unsuited to its purpose, or directed against individuals without justification.

The police should carefully build and conserve the reserve of tolerance so that public resentment will not at any time suddenly overwhelm it. Purposeless arrests should be avoided, and warnings and nonpunitive enforcement procedures should be substituted for citations when the driving history and circumstances warrant, especially in the case of inadvertent violations. The attitude, manner, and personality of the officer who takes the action also strongly influence the amount of resentment developed.

Consequences of Unwise Enforcement. The primary purpose of police action against the erring motorist is to improve his driving habits so that he will be less likely to become involved in an accident or to interfere with the smooth flow of traffic. When the treatment is applied indiscriminately to the entire motoring public, many drivers are inconvenienced and punished who do not merit such treatment. Even the best police procedures justifiably used prove distasteful and tend to antagonize the public, and inferior procedures that unnecessarily inconvenience and penalize citizens create resentment against such unreasonable action. Citizen antagonism and resentment diminish the public cooperation which is so essential to the successful accomplishment of the total police job. Unselective and ill-advised enforcement results in the

dissipation of police energy which should be reserved for persons who are amenable only to enforcement procedures.

Maximum Safety with Minimum Penalty. Maximum safety with a minimum public inconvenience, penalty, and resentment should be the police goal. Maximum safety is obtained by the use of the most effective control procedures directed at the group most likely to have accidents; resentment results from procedures that are not acceptable to the general public. The police, therefore, should classify drivers according to their accident expectancy and ascertain the relative effectiveness and public acceptance of the several methods of treatment, *i.e.*, the warning, the citation or arrest, and the traffic-violator school. They should also tolerantly interpret and fairly apply regulations, and direct their efforts against violations which cause accidents, taking into account the areas and the hours of greatest frequency.

Accident Expectancy. Accidents are not experienced by all motorists alike; some drivers are more likely to have them than others. A relatively small proportion of the drivers have the majority of accidents. This fact was made apparent by a study of the accident records of a sample of 29,531 drivers who were continuously licensed to drive in Connecticut for the 6 years 1931 through 1936. About 19 per cent of these drivers had all the accidents experienced by the group during the period of the study, and 3.9 per cent (or 20 per cent of the accident drivers) had 36.4 per cent of all the accidents.²

The primary purpose of the enforcement of moving-traffic regulations is to prevent accidents; enforcement effort, therefore, is most effective when directed at those most likely to be involved in accidents. This practice avoids the dissipation of enforcement effort on persons with a low accident expectancy, and increases the effectiveness of police accident-prevention effort. It also diminishes the amount of public resentment. The problem is to identify the drivers who are most apt to have accidents.

A study by the Wichita Police Department³ demonstrates that the accident expectancy of motorists is in proportion to the frequency of their driving violations. This conclusion is drawn from a comparison

of the number of personal-injury motor-vehicle traffic accidents experienced by groups of 500 drivers with varying degrees of violation frequency. All the drivers in this section of the study drove continuously in the community for 7 years. The conclusion that the frequency of moving violations increases the likelihood of accidents is based on the assumption of approximately equal exposure for the drivers in each group.⁴

<i>Groups of 500 drivers</i>	<i>Personal-injury accidents in 7 years</i>
No reported violations in 7 years.....	18
1 reported violation in 7 years.....	39
2 reported violations in 7 years.....	51
3 reported violations in 7 years....	68
4 reported violations in 7 years.....	82
5 or more violations in 7 years.....	116

The study also made a comparison of two other groups of 500 drivers. The drivers in one group each had one personal-injury accident in 1934; the other group had no personal-injury accidents in that year. A comparison of a 7-year⁵ driving history of the two groups of drivers is shown in the following tabulation:

<i>Groups of 500 drivers</i>	<i>Moving violations in 7 years</i>	<i>Personal-injury accidents in 7 years</i>
No personal-injury accidents.....	320	30
1 personal-injury accident.....	504	47

The above tabulations show considerable variation in the accident expectancy of drivers in the several groups. The comparison is more readily apparent in the following tabulation of the likelihood of a driver in any of the groups being involved in an accident as compared to the drivers in the no-violation group. The accident rate per person per year in the group with no violations is approximately .005. Assigning a

To question the validity of the conclusion that the frequency of moving violations increases the likelihood of accidents is to question the validity of the proposition that moving-traffic violations cause accidents.

The driving record for the year was not included in the study of these two groups; their 6-year driving history was increased by one-sixth to permit comparison with the 7-year driving history of the groups shown above.

purely arbitrary figure of 1.0 to represent the accident expectancy of the drivers in this group, the comparative accident expectancy of the drivers in the other groups is that indicated in the following tabulation.

Group	<i>Likelihood of a driver being involved in a personal-injury accident as compared to drivers in the no-violation group</i>
No violations in 7 years.....	1.0
No personal-injury accidents in 1934.....	1.7
1 violation in 7 years.....	2.2
1 personal-injury accident in 1934.....	2.6
2 reported violations in 7 years.....	3.2
3 reported violations in 7 years.....	3.8
4 reported violations in 7 years.....	5.1
5 or more violations in 7 years.....	6.4

From this it may be seen that a driver who had two reported violations in the 7-year period was 3.2 times more likely to be involved in a personal-injury accident than a driver who had no reported violations during the same period.

The great accident expectancy of the traffic violator was further emphasized by a study of the accident experience of 694 drivers who had personal-injury accidents and of 500 drivers who were arrested for moving-traffic violations in the same year.⁶ Only 9 per cent of the accident drivers experienced personal-injury accidents in the ensuing 8 years as compared to 14.8 per cent of the traffic violators.

This study indicates that reported violations are a more suitable accident-expectancy indicator than the number of previous accidents experienced by a driver in a community that maintains a suitable level of enforcement. This conclusion follows from the close correlation between accidents and violations and the relative infrequency of accidents as compared to violations.

The study also indicates that drivers under twenty-five years of age are most badly in need of treatment on the basis of accident experience.⁷ Thirty-eight per cent of the drivers under twenty-five years of age who were arrested for traffic violations repeated within a year as compared to 28 per cent of the age group twenty-five to twenty-nine inclusive. From thirty to fifty years of age, the percentage who repeated within

These two groups of drivers were not selected on the basis of continuous driving in the community during the ensuing 8 years. The conclusion is based on the assumptions, believed valid, that the proportions who drove continuously in the community the ensuing 8 years were approximately equal in each group and that their exposures were approximately equal.

a year remained about constant at approximately 25 per cent. The small number above fifty made further interpretation unwise.

Before-the-accident treatment to reduce materially the accident rate should be applied to the group having the greatest accident expectancy. The Wichita study indicates that the repeater-violator has a greater accident expectancy than other drivers, including the first-accident driver, that accident expectancy is somewhat in proportion to the degree of violation persistency, and that drivers under twenty-five years of age have a greater accident expectancy than older drivers. This study indicates that the police should give primary attention to motorists who are repeater-violators, and particularly to those under twenty-five years of age. This group is sufficiently large to support suitable enforcement pressure directed at them, in contrast to the smaller number of accident drivers and the relatively small proportion of accident drivers who have a second accident.

Since motorists vary in skill and attitude and consequently in accident expectancy, they should not be treated alike. Unusual privileges may be granted so long as they are not abused; motorists who abuse the driving privilege should be subjected progressively to admonition, training, and punishment, and finally to a denial of the privilege.

RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF TREATMENT METHODS

The compliance effectiveness of police action must not be judged exclusively in terms of the effect on the individual against whom the action was taken, because the effect extends with a gradually diminishing force to others. Compliance effectiveness is the sum of the effect on all persons who have a knowledge of the action. The treatment, therefore, may have a negative effect on the individual offender and yet be advisable because of its favorable effect on many others. The effect of treatment on persons other than the subject is difficult to measure, but its effectiveness on the violator may be established.

The effectiveness of treatment was measured in the study cited above (1) in terms of the length of time which elapsed following treatment before a subsequent violation and (2) in terms of the percentage who did not repeat after treatment within a given period of time. As measured by both methods, the warning proved less effective, and the traffic-violator school proved more effective, than citation and fine; the school was found to be 25 per cent more effective than a citation and fine, and the first warning was only 25 per cent less effective than a citation and fine.

Depreciating Effectiveness. The study also indicated that the effectiveness of treatment depreciates with experience. The first warning resulted in a median elapsed time before subsequent violation of 209 days as compared to only 69 following the fourth warning. The first warning resulted in 35 per cent who did not repeat in the subsequent 12 months as compared to only 6 per cent following the fourth warning. It seems probable that the citation and fine suffer a similar depreciation of effectiveness, although data are not available to demonstrate this point.

RELATIVE COST OF TREATMENT METHODS

The police, in formulating their traffic-control policy, should weigh the relative cost of the treatment procedures to be used. The total cost includes not only the salaries and other expenses of administering the treatment, but also the loss of public sympathy and support which may be incurred by unjustified or unreasonably severe punishment.

The Warning. The warning notice has the least cost in both respects. An officer will serve a larger number of warnings than citations because the service of warnings involves less emotional strain and are more frequently used in borderline cases. The operating cost is consequently less, and in addition, resentment from the warning is outweighed by the good will induced. Greater use, therefore, should be made of the warning notice on first violations and, in communities where an unusually large number of warnings are served, on second violations as well, through the use of a notice of violation in a manner to be described later.

Traffic-violator School. Because of its great effectiveness, the traffic-violator school treatment should be used in those cases where the warning has proved ineffective. The traffic-violator school creates some resentment because of the time required in attendance, but this is outweighed by the good will created through the close contact between a suitable police instructor and the student.

The traffic-violator school instructor is able to dispose of about 25 violators for each 8 hours of duty. This estimate is based on the time spent by the instructor in preparation, in lectures, in out-of-class discussion, and in examinations for classes of from 20 to 30 students. Since the traffic school treatment is 25 per cent more effective than a citation, the instructor does an amount of work in an 8-hour day equivalent in effectiveness to over 30 citations. The average traffic officer, devoting all his attention to the moving violator averages approximately 5 citations a day, and consequently, a squad of 6 men would be required to average 30 a day.

This, however, does not mean that the 8 hours spent by a police officer instructing in traffic school is equivalent in effectiveness to the work done by 6 traffic officers on the street. The presence of the 6 street officers provides other services which must not be ignored; their presence on patrol serves to deter violators as well as the criminally inclined; they are available for both traffic and nontraffic police emergencies; and finally they must apprehend the violator in order that he may be sent to the violator school.

The Citation. The cost of administering the citation procedure that results in a penalty is considerably greater than the warning. In addition to more man power being required to serve citations, there is the cost of time spent in court and in apprehending violators who fail to appear. The citation followed by fine, jail, or license revocation is the most expensive form of treatment in terms of resentment because the driver invariably resents the penalty and loses confidence in the police for penalizing him for an act which he almost invariably justifies. This procedure should be reserved as a last resort.

The Written Warning. A written warning should always be used instead of a verbal warning because it exerts a more effective influence on the driver and aids in recording the incident for guidance in disposing of future violations.⁸ They may be used against violations involving defective equipment and parking irregularities as well as moving violations.⁹

Notices of defect frequently provide a space where any officer may sign to indicate that the improper condition has been corrected. Some departments, however, require notation of inspection by an authorized inspection station; others accept inspection by commercial garages. The defect notice with notation of the correction of the defect is mailed or otherwise returned to the police by the motorist.

When the form used is 5 by 3 inches, the original may be filed in the driver index, thus avoiding the need to prepare an index card. Statistical compilations are more readily made, however, when a punch card is used as the form. The duplicate copy should be given to the motorist.

Parking-violation warnings, used by a few departments, are filed according to motor-vehicle license number, and a name card is not placed in the driver file because of the relative unimportance of these violations in relation to traffic safety and also because the vehicle may have been misparked by someone other than the registered owner. Use of parking warnings are restricted by some departments to overtime parking. The number of prior warnings in a 6- or 12-month period before the issuance of a summons is dependent on department policy.

When parking warnings are not used, the parking summons should be in the form of a suitably addressed, franked envelope for mailing a check or money order in an amount indicated by check mark on a schedule. The envelope should be scotch-taped to the windshield of the misparked automobile.

Notice of Violation. A notice of violation specifying that a summons will follow if the driving history shows an unfavorable record of violations and accidents provides maximum opportunity to apply the most suitable enforcement procedure; it may be used as a warning except in cases where the driving history and the circumstances of the violation justify a more rigid treatment. It has the further advantage of removing this decision from the traffic officer who, in addition to lacking the driving history of the offender, may be unduly influenced by the personality of the motorist and other extraneous factors.

The department must establish a schedule of prior offenses and accidents that, combined with the current infraction, requires the issuance of a summons. This schedule will guide clerks who inspect the driving history of the offender at the time of filing the notice in the driver file. The relative seriousness of accidents and offenses, the depreciating effectiveness of treatment procedures, and the age of the driver should be reflected in the schedule. The first offender and the driver with a relatively good driving record will thereby be given driving privileges denied the violation-prone driver and the one who has demonstrated his unresponsiveness to treatment. The schedule should not be made public.

The effectiveness of the above-described procedure is enhanced if nearby departments or all departments in a state furnish a record of out-of-town violations to the department of the city in which the driver resides.

INTERPRETATION AND APPLICATION OF REGULATIONS

The enforcement policy should define the point at which enforcement is to be applied and the nature of the enforcement to be used for the various violations, based on a common-sense interpretation of regulations, and taking into account public safety, convenience, and resentment. To allow for error in the judgment of the officer and to minimize doubt of violation in the mind of the motorist, some latitude is desirable in the enforcement of regulations that may be violated in degree, such as those for speed, stop signs, time-limit parking, and driving while under the influence of liquor. The accident trend should guide in establishing a suitable enforcement latitude; when accidents result from it, the extent must be narrowed.

Some latitude of enforcement may also be desirable in regulations where the violation is absolute and not a matter of degree if strict enforcement is not necessary to accomplish the purpose of the regulation. Examples of such regulations include, among others, those relating to turning signals, defective lights, one-way streets, and parking on the left side of the street. Care must be observed, however, to avoid an

enforcement latitude that promotes noncompliance or that condones non-compliance where the hazard is great. Violations permitted at non-hazardous locations usually encourage violations at hazardous locations; enforcement latitude in the form of less severe treatment, such as a warning, then avoids both the evils of resentment and of condonation.

Double Parking. The double-parking policy must be influenced by the factors mentioned above. Stopping in a double line should be prevented when it interferes with traffic flow. Where live double parking does not interfere with moving traffic, it may be allowed for brief periods, but double-parked cars without drivers should not be permitted because they block cars parked at the adjacent curb and thus create public resentment. Double parking of trucks for loading and unloading purposes is a practical business necessity where adequate alley and loading-zone facilities are not available; the need for this practice should be eliminated, however, by the creation of suitable loading facilities.

Overtime Parking. Policy in the enforcement of overtime parking regulations should establish the number of minutes overtime before a ticket is to be served. Such latitude is justified because the violation does not jeopardize safety and the resentment thus avoided more than offsets the evils of the overtime. The latitude should be somewhat in proportion to the time limit of legal parking; 20 per cent leeway is suitable, and parking-meter time mechanisms should be adjusted to lose 1 minute in every 5. This information, however, should not be made public.

Nonresident Drivers. Policy should also be established concerning action to be taken against out-of-city and out-of-state motorists. To ignore their transgressions fosters dangerous driving practices, but to treat them as local drivers creates unfavorable relations with the offenders, their friends in the community, and others who may thus be influenced to avoid the community. A middle course that grants some tolerance to nonresidents, especially on local regulations, is wise. Violations of universally adopted regulations which menace public safety, however, justify no latitude beyond that granted local drivers.

The Drinking Driver. Policy and procedures must also be formulated for the enforcement of the law forbidding driving while intoxicated. Technically, one drink may be said to place a person under the influence of liquor, but to arrest all drivers who have had only one drink would be unsound. Interpreted in traffic terms, whenever a driver has drunk so much that his control over himself and his vehicle is impaired, he may be considered subject to arrest for driving under the influence of liquor. Chemical tests of intoxication provide information on which a wise enforcement policy may be based. Since severe intoxication is not neces-

sary to make the drinking driver a hazard, the police should seek the cooperation of the courts in treating more severely violations by drivers affected by intoxicants but not sufficiently under their influence to justify arrest on that charge, a fact readily brought to the attention of the court by a notation to be checked on the citation or notice of violation that the driver had been drinking.

Enforcement-policy Guides. The following rules concerning enforcement latitude are necessary in order to avoid increasing driving hazards:

1. Do not permit the public to know of the enforcement latitude.
2. Do not allow a latitude beyond the safe limits.
3. Avoid imposing inconvenience or penalty on motorists except when necessary to prevent actions that are likely to result in accidents or congestion.
4. Use warnings for violations at points of no hazard that nevertheless engender violations at hazardous locations.
5. Assure a uniform application of enforcement policies and conformity in actual enforcement to the enforcement point established by policy by all members of the force.
6. Reconcile the policy of the courts and the police.
7. Dispose of violations that result in accidents by citation or notice of violation, except drunken driving, hit-and-run, manslaughter, and violations that may become manslaughter; these almost invariably require an immediate actual arrest. Action should not be taken against a driver merely because there has been an accident. If the violation is one against which a reasonable officer, had he observed it, would not ordinarily have taken action, the fact of the accident is not a valid reason for taking action.

THE ENFORCEMENT PROGRAM

To assure maximum reduction of accidents, enforcement pressure should be applied, in proportion to need, to the locations, and at the hours of greatest accident expectancy; it should be directed against the violations which cause the largest number of accidents and against the group of drivers who are responsible for the majority of the violations and who constitute the greatest hazard to the community. Failure to apply selective enforcement dissipates police effort and arouses public resentment.

Changes should be made in the enforcement program to meet changed conditions; an activity that is no longer of prime importance should not be continued. As soon as a hazardous condition has been remedied, the police should turn their attention to other problems.

The enforcement pressure should be uniformly kept at as high a level as is necessary to maintain a favorable accident rate. Spasmodic drives that result in large numbers of arrests preceded and followed by periods of enforcement inactivity are undesirable. They are unfair to the motoring public; the period of lax enforcement causes a misconception of the point of enforcement, and drives stimulate an overzealous police attention and unwarranted prosecutions of some violators. The inconsistency of spasmodic enforcement confuses the motorist, and prosecution for a previously ignored violation creates resentment.

Extent of Enforcement. The police should strive for a minimum-accident goal by using nonpunitive procedures supplemented by enough wisely directed punitive enforcement to maintain a reasonably low accident rate. Warnings and visible patrol, coupled with intensive public education, should be used as far as possible, and punitive enforcement should be used only to the extent necessary. A suitable proportion is thus maintained between punitive and nonpunitive enforcement. As the accident rate is brought down, enforcement may be lessened; this results automatically by maintaining a constant enforcement index, which is the ratio of traffic convictions to injury accidents.

Most police departments do not maintain a sufficient enforcement pressure to attain a favorable accident rate. Few police departments provide too much enforcement; when they do so, it is invariably too much punitive enforcement in proportion to nonpunitive enforcement.

Many police departments have demonstrated that a rigid enforcement of traffic regulations, following a period of lax enforcement, lowers the accident rate. Communities having a high enforcement index generally have a low accident rate. Consequently, it might appear that all traffic accidents could be eliminated by completely enforcing driving laws. A point of diminishing returns, however, occurs; as the enforcement index is increased, the resulting reduction in accidents is not in proportion. It has been observed also that when a favorable accident rate has been established, it can be continued only by extensive educational and non-punitive procedures or by continuing to increase the enforcement pressure.

Enforcement Index. An arrest index, which is the ratio of traffic citations to injury accidents, is useful in maintaining a suitable level of enforcement and assuring its uniform application at the locations and during the hours when needed. Each citation should have an equivalent weight in warnings and notices of violation. Three warnings or notices of violation, for example, may be considered equal to one citation for the purpose of evaluating the enforcement pressure.

An arrest index should be established to attain a desirably low accident rate. The selection of the index will be influenced in part by the enforce-

ment tolerance of the community, although the hazard of a low tolerance may be met by increasing the proportion of nonpunitive enforcement without lessening the effective pressure. A low conviction index (percentage of those arrested who are convicted) necessitates a higher arrest index if the enforcement index (the number convicted of moving-traffic violations for each personal-injury motor-vehicle accident) is to be maintained.

The arrest index should not be less than 10 (*i.e.*, 10 citations or 30 notices of violation for each injury accident). During the previous month, 100 injury accidents would then necessitate a quota for the department of 1,000 citations or the equivalent in warnings and notices of violation for moving violations for the current month. If the accidents are distributed 15, 35, and 50 among the platoons, the platoon quotas for the patrol division are set at 150, 350, and 500 citations respectively.

When an arrest (and notice of violation) index is established, a department quota is set. Justification for a quota rests on the fact that violations, and consequently accidents caused by them, are decreased by enforcement. The presence of accidents is evidence of a need for enforcement, and their frequency is a measure of the amount of enforcement needed.

When the traffic division has a special squad for meeting irregular needs (see Chaps. 8 and 25), this force should be used to supplement enforcement by the patrol division. It is used to best advantage to maintain "superiority of fire" in areas and during hours of greatest need where the patrol division is having the most difficulty in reducing accident frequency.¹⁰

Fair-play Enforcement. The practice of traffic officers hiding from the view of motorists so as to observe violations and then apprehending the violators from ambush, known as "in-the-hole" enforcement, is not justified except to arrest an individual persistent violator who can be brought to justice in no other way. Regular and continuous traffic patrol permits the service of a sufficient number of notices of violation to maintain a suitable enforcement index, and it has many advantages over "in-the-hole" operations. It is effective as a deterrent to bad driving practices and violations; it avoids much of the resentment and obtains an equal or greater compliance than the "in-the-hole" method with less penalty cost to the motoring public. The more frequent sight of the officer also makes the public more police-service conscious.

Follow-up on Enforcement. Liaison should be established with motor-vehicle departments or other agencies having the responsibility of suspend-

See reference to a "floating unit" used by the Lancashire Constabulary, p. 173.

ing and revoking driver's licenses, and follow-up procedures must be established to assure that the licensing authority is notified of all incidents that justify such action and that the police are notified of all revocations or suspensions of licenses in their jurisdiction. The police have a continuing responsibility to follow up on suspensions and revocations to ensure that the motorist does not continue to drive.

EXPERIMENTS IN NONPUNITIVE CONTROL

Experiments conducted at Wichita, Kansas, and Lancashire, England, prove that a reduction in the number of prosecutions, previously held at a relatively high level, is not followed by an increase in the number of accidents, provided suitable nonpunitive control procedures are utilized. These experiments seem to indicate that a policy of rigid enforcement with the prosecution of large numbers of motorists is not the most effective method of effecting a reduction in the number of motor-vehicle accidents.

The Wichita Experience. A need for a constantly increasing enforcement pressure to maintain the personal-injury accident rate at an acceptably low level was observed in Wichita during the years 1928 to 1936. An effort was made to reduce the amount of punitive enforcement by introducing a system of written warnings (later converted into notices of violation), which were followed by the issuance of a summons if the record of the offender indicated the desirability of prosecution. The experience during these years led to the conclusion that a satisfactorily low accident rate could not be maintained by enforcement alone and that punitive enforcement by itself did not ensure against an increase in accidents.

In an unusual enforcement policy was adopted. Officers were forbidden to arrest or cite motorists for moving violations except for driving while intoxicated or reckless driving while drinking, hit-and-run, violations causing accidents resulting, or likely to result, in manslaughter, or for an accident-producing violation that would have justified the issuance of a notice of violation had it been observed without reference to the accident. The experiment was launched with some trepidation because many officers predicted a rise in the accident rate. Convictions dropped sharply during the ensuing 3-year period (only 5,629 in contrast to 16,397 during the previous 3-year period) but the number of accidents did not increase. During the 3-year with an enforcement

index¹¹ of 10, there was a total of 1,647 personal-injury

Enforcement index is the ratio of convictions for moving violations to personal-injury motor-vehicle traffic accidents.

Home Office Experimental Motor Patrol Scheme. An experiment in traffic control and accident prevention conducted in Lancashire, England, a highly urbanized area of 1,869 square miles having a population of over 5,000,000, indicates strikingly the results which can be secured through an intensive, nonpunitive program. The experiment is so significant that excerpts from the official report are reproduced on the following pages. Chief Constable Sir Archibald F. Hordern had witnessed the continued rise of motor-vehicle accidents from the beginning of his police career following the First World War with a growing conviction of the futility of attempting to reduce the number of accidents by prosecuting erring motorists. In 1935 the Home Office of the British government provided funds to enable him to carry out an experiment in the control of motor and pedestrian traffic, with a minimum use of punitive enforcement, which involved an increase in the use of conspicuous patrol of the most hazardous sections of the roads and an intensive program of public education. The following account of the experiment is taken from the official report submitted to the Home Office.¹³

The force was augmented, for actual road patrol, by 300 men, 92 vehicles, and 50 lightweight motorcycles,¹⁴ with an addition of 12 men for clerical and workshop duties, and 19 instructors for the Motor Patrol Training School. . . . A scheme was . . . worked out . . . of providing as effective patrol as possible in the really bad accident areas, principally on the main roads . . . and of dealing with the remainder of the area by means of a fairly large floating unit, consisting of 25 vehicles. . . . Its object is to reinforce the existing patrol and provide really intensive supervision in such parts of the county that appear to require it. . . . One effect of the operations of this floating unit is that the public frequently see groups of patrol cars, varying from two or three to perhaps seven or eight, on comparatively short lengths of road, with the result that a driver, seeing a single patrol car, never knows whether he is going to meet a succession of patrols or not. Such periodic concentrations of police vehicles are part of the organized scheme, and vary daily and in some cases hourly, on different roads. . . . The general principle is . . . to keep the distribution as fluid as possible and to avoid reducing the patrolling of a road or the covering of a particular area to a matter of routine. Every effort is . . . made to maintain the greatest weight of patrol at the places and at the particular times at which accidents are known to occur, and for this reason considerable importance is attached to the headquarters intelligence system, which has been set up for the purpose of directing the work of road supervision.

An accident information card has . . . been designed to show the accidents occurring in every quarter mile of every classified road, at any time of the day or night, and on any date in the year. These cards also indicate, for each accident, details of the weather, visibility, the class of persons or vehicles involved, age of victim if a child, and the map reference of the accident. The accidents are classified according to the most vulnerable person involved regardless of who was actually to blame, *i.e.*, if a pedestrian is involved, it is shown as a pedestrian accident, the vehicle being indicated in the remarks column. The object of this classification is to obtain a guide as to the most suitable form of police patrol at various accident points, *e.g.*, generally speaking, the police patrol cars can deal with the vehicle problem, whereas in busy streets in towns and villages where pedestrians and cyclists are being constantly involved, the loud-speaker cars, foot, cycle, or motorcycle constables would probably be more effective. Similarly, it assists in deciding upon the most useful place at which to drop the observers from cars.

Public interest in safety on the roads, which is a real necessity if any success is to be achieved, can undoubtedly be created by the direct action of the police, because their presence in sufficient numbers on the roads establishes a hidden feeling of compulsion which places their efforts on a different and more effective plane from that of other safety measures. . . . Experience . . . has shown that the greater the number of motor patrol vehicles which can . . . be placed on any given open road, the greater will be the reduction in accidents, and this is borne out by the tests on 177 lengths of main road. A certain number of these were "black-listed" in each month for a short period, and on each occasion the concentrated attention of police cars produced a reduction in accidents in the month averaging 73.46 per cent, when compared with the corresponding

Forty . . . brake meters have been issued to patrol cars, and (in 12 months of use) 25,234 brake tests have been carried out, and the results show . . . that some 1.4 per cent of the brakes tested were definitely bad, and a further 18.9 per cent were in need of attention. . . . The propaganda value of these tests is considerable, and it is hoped that, even without prosecution, the general standard of brake efficiency in Lancashire will be raised.

A further system . . . of taking periodical speed checks in built-up areas, without stopping any vehicles, has had a good effect. . . . A warning letter is sent to the owner of any vehicle which is found to have exceeded the speed limit.¹⁵

In addition to the hour, date, location, speed, and identifying data, the letter contains the following paragraphs:

"I should be much obliged if you would kindly assist the police in their efforts to secure the greater safety of all road users by requesting the driver of this vehicle at the time in question to observe the speed limit when he is driving in this or any other restricted area.

"I would inform you that the checking of the speeds on certain roads is not being carried out with a view to prosecuting offenders, but to ascertain whether special

The following may be said to be the chief factors which have led to a reduction in accidents of 44 per cent: (a) The additional specially trained personnel and vehicles, (b) the cooperation of the public, (c) the education of children, (d) a combined effort by the whole force, (e) a sufficient staff to maintain an intelligence system by which adequate supervision can be given to ensure that police efforts are not dissipated. . . .

Prior to the introduction of the scheme, there had been little variation in the accident position from year to year as expressed in casualties per 1,000 population:

Experience has continued to show that a very great deal depends upon the cooperation of the public and on maintaining mutually helpful relations between the police and motorists, and that no useful purpose would have been served by continual prosecutions for many of the less serious offenses. Importance has also been attached to increasing "Safety First" propaganda and to the constant advice and warning given to all road users by both motor patrols and foot officers, no less than 1,220,000 persons having been spoken to during the experimental year. . . . The following are some of the principal methods which have been adopted:

(a) Various forms of publicity in the local press, e.g., statistics, articles on the training and work of the motor patrols, photographs of actual accidents with suitable homilies on road dangers, specific appeals for care and consideration on special occasions such as bank holidays, etc.

(b) Printed slips for road users. Over 260,000 of these slips have been handed out by members of the force to road users whom they have advised or warned. A further 350,000 have been issued by taxation authorities with licenses, and some 150,000 have been sent out by insurance companies with renewal forms.

police action to enforce the speed regulations should in future be undertaken in this district. I hope, however, that warnings of this nature will increase the cooperation between the police and the motoring public and thus render such special enforcement unnecessary." (*Ibid.*, p. 35.)

(c) Printed slips for cars parked in foolish places. Wherever possible, a plan showing local parking places is printed on the back. . . . Some 90,000 of these notices have been issued.

(d) The issue of notices to public service and commercial vehicle operators and periodic lectures to their employees.

(e) Interesting special constables in the scheme by lectures, by taking them out as observers in patrol cars, and by visits to the Motor Patrol School.

(f) Brief lectures to 40,000 A.R.P. wardens.

(g) Exhibiting slides at some 190 cinemas.

(h) Interesting car and motorcycle clubs and others in the scheme, and arranging for members to visit the Motor Patrol School.

(i) Window displays with slogans, posters, and models illustrating the various aspects of road safety, and large-scale plans showing where local accidents have occurred.

(j) The distribution of some 95,000 special pamphlets by members of the force to old-age pensioners and other old people.

(k) Special talks to motorists on the road, and at clubs, works, etc.

(l) The issue, through the schools, or by house-to-house distribution by motor patrols, of notices to parents.

(m) Lectures have been given at all schools approximately once a month to the 240,000 children attending. Talks are also periodically given to gatherings of parents at schools. The teaching of school children has been supplemented by posters issued to the 1,100 schools, by the distribution of 170,000 small posters for the homes, by lantern lectures to 600,000 children at children's matinees at cinemas, and at holiday camps. Brief talks and advice are given from loud-speaker cars by the schools officers, and by motor patrols in playgrounds and outside schools.

(n) Inspection of children's bicycles. Of 51,000 inspected, 10,000 were found to be defective.

A policy of teaching drivers on the spot the very road sense which they lack has now been undertaken. . . . This policy has necessarily meant a great reduction in prosecutions—from 22,700 per year to approximately 9,000 per year—and whilst it has resulted in less officers wasting their time in court until their cases come on for hearing, and enabled more police to be in evidence on the roads, it has entailed detailed instructions being given to the force in regard to the types of offenses which should be dealt with by way of verbal caution. The outcome of this policy is that on the whole the more important cases are put before the justices, and in time it may lead to traffic offenses being looked upon with greater severity.

The policy of attempting to obtain publicity by means of more prosecutions has not . . . been tried at any time during the experimental period, and the result so far has been to create a spirit of cooperation between the motorists and the police, to an extent which has made the average driver tend to regard a fellow motorist who has been prosecuted as the recipient of a well-deserved public rebuke, rather than viewing him sympathetically as a victim of assumed police "persecution." In other words, a motoring offense is ceasing to be consid-

Chapter 10

VICE CONTROL

Violations of the morals laws are frequently referred to as vices, and police enforcement of these laws is called vice control. Included in this group are laws prohibiting or regulating prostitution and gambling and the sale, possession, or use of narcotics and liquor.

Morals laws differ from the others in important respects. Their violations are a continuing series of offenses usually in the same place of business, and they require some public support for existence. The offender-victim relationship that exists in crimes against persons and property is ordinarily absent in vice offenses except when they involve the illegal possession and use of narcotics, liquor, and gambling paraphernalia, and when the transaction assumes a character not anticipated by one of the participants, as when a patron loses his money in a crooked gambling game, a client becomes infected by a prostitute, a bootlegger sells poisonous liquor, or a narcotic peddler substitutes sugar of milk for morphine. In these cases, some other law is also usually violated. Vice violations are also characterized by the voluntary participation of two parties (*i.e.*, the customer on the one hand and the banker in a game, the prostitute, the narcotic peddler, or the violator of liquor-control laws on the other) and nearly always by the existence of a third party who shares the profits but does not openly and actively participate in the operation. It is the third-party profit that makes vice so difficult to control.

The two-party voluntary participation of vice offenses is marked by the absence of direct harm to anyone except the willing participant, although in some cases his family and associates are indirectly injured. Many citizens and some public officials believe, therefore, that even though the participant is a weakling who cannot control his appetite, he should be free to indulge in the vices in spite of the injury to his health, the dissipation of his property, or the destruction of his own life, so that the strong may taste enjoyments that do them no apparent harm.

Modern society, however, has developed the philosophy that the strong must help the weak by protecting them from their own folly. This is the philosophy of America, and, without regard to whether its practice strengthens or weakens the human race, morals laws have been enacted to shield the weak from their own lack of good sense. Vice, if not con-

trolled, may become a nuisance, and except in gambling, the health of the participant is also jeopardized. The dissipation of money, the damage to conjugal relationships, the injury to the family, and other social evils that result from the vices further justify moral legislation.

Successful enforcement of laws in the field of vice control is dependent on public opinion. The public must be educated to the manifold evils of vice and the advantages of its control if the regulation is to be effective. Opportunity is created for graft when the police are charged with the enforcement of an unpopular law, especially when it is intended primarily to safeguard morals and when large profits are involved.

Vice and Organized Crime. Organized crime is the combination of two or more persons for the purpose of establishing, in a definite area, a monopoly or virtual monopoly in a criminal activity of a type that provides a continuing financial profit, utilizing terror and corruption to accomplish their purpose. Crime is organized by gangsters. Continued criminal operations uninterrupted by police interference, or with police interference rendered comparatively innocuous by dismissals and indifferent prosecutions, necessitate the corruption of public officials; monopolistic control necessitates killing intruders to eliminate those who attempt to muscle in on the profitable venture and to warn others who may be likewise tempted. Tremendous illegal profits make organized crime possible; otherwise public officials could not be easily corrupted, and the risk of killing and of being killed would not be justified.

Huge and continuing criminal profits are found in the field of vice, *i.e.*, in gambling, prostitution, and in the illegal sale of narcotics and liquor. Organized crime is infrequently found in the fields of other criminal activities such as robbery, theft, and fraud, because (1) the profits, like the crimes, are not continuing but result from isolated individual acts, (2) the profits of one group of criminals are not so large in the aggregate, (3) monopolistic control is virtually impossible because the criminal operations are not usually conducted in an established location and consequently are less susceptible to control by gangsters or by official authority, and (4) the crimes are more universally condemned by organized society than are the vices.

Criminals also sometimes organize to extort money from widespread victims in return for protection against unlawful acts. This is frequently the manner in which vice operators are brought under the control of crime organizations.

Vice profits, when permitted in any community, are an open invitation to the gangster to organize the criminal activity in order to assure continuing and greater profits. Organized crime becomes entrenched in a community only through some form of political corruption, and once

entrenched, herculean efforts are required to eradicate it. Police efforts to eliminate organized criminal vice operations meet strong resistance; in some communities the resistance is more than the police can overcome, in which case they lessen their efforts or are broken in their attempt. In no community can the police satisfactorily control vice without strong public support. All citizens have a responsibility to see that their communities are free from vice, because only then may they be certain that their government is free from corruption.

Vice and Criminal Activities. A primary police interest in vice control results from the close connection between vice and criminal activities. Vice operations foster the development of criminality and facilitate criminal activities; they attract criminals whose emotional instability, lack of family ties, and weakness of character cause them to seek recreation and relief from reality by vice indulgences. Criminals are important customers, so vice operators frequently aid them in disposing of their loot, hiding from the police, and planning their depredations. Criminals and vice operators feel a kindred relationship because of the illegality of their activities. Avenues of control which permit vice operations in violation of the law are found useful to criminals in thwarting the administration of criminal justice.

Vice operations also create police problems not directly associated with major criminal activity. Areas that contain vice establishments are difficult to police because of frequent fights and other disturbances of the peace; a person under the influence of intoxicating liquor is less amenable to reason and frequently creates situations calling for police action. The narcotic addict must resort to illegal sources of revenue to secure an income adequate to supply his needs. Gambling losses sometimes result in embezzlement, theft, and suicide.

Social Problems of Vice. Vice presents varied social problems having moral, health, economic, crime, and other social characteristics. Solutions require moral education, the responsibility of the home, the school, the church, and the community; health control, the responsibility of the medical officer; economic welfare, a problem for the social worker; and enforcement, a responsibility of the police. Solutions cannot result from activity limited to one aspect; the church, the school, the home, the community, the health officer, and the social worker, each has a part to play, but not any one of them is created specifically for this purpose, and all have other interests that occupy their major attention.

The police is the only agency that has as one of its primary tasks the control of commercialized vice. Police control is intended to lessen or eliminate health, economic, and crime hazards, and so long as these

hazards remain an integral part of vice, police participation in its regulation must continue.

Moral Aspect of Vice. Police regulation of vice should be based on law rather than on moral precepts. Otherwise, those persons with a contrary viewpoint will consider them reformers, and, in addition, the police may be prone to enter upon a crusade rather than to deal with the problem unemotionally and rationally. The health, economic, and crime aspects of vice control provide ample and undeniable justification for enforcement.

POLICE CONTROL OF VICE

Police control of vice is made difficult by the diversity of opinion among citizens as to the nature and extent of regulation that should be applied. Respectable businessmen may legitimately participate in vice profits by providing needed services; since the vice operator may be a valuable customer, businessmen are sometimes willing to use their influence to prevent a discontinuance of these activities. Vice operators are willing to share their large profits to assure a continuance of their business, and persons who exercise some influence over the police are sometimes willing to accept the windfall. Customer participants may also exert pressure so that their vices may be indulged. Business groups, such as retail merchants, restaurant owners, and hotel proprietors who enjoy no part of the money profits, may consider some laxness in vice control essential for prosperity and business development. Others who have no personal or monetary interest may oppose regulation on the ground that it is an infringement of personal liberty contrary to the best interests of society. The restriction on personal freedom involved in vice control arouses the emotions of some people like restrictions on freedom in religion, politics, and free speech, and consequently a well-balanced view is seldom taken.

Influences for Lax Control. Persons who oppose rigid enforcement of vice laws frequently make no determined effort to repeal the legislation but attempt to gain their objective by influencing the police to relax their control. This is sometimes accomplished through budgetary and legislative control exercised by the local governing board. For example, police participation in vice control is effectively reduced by depriving them of essential undercover funds. Also, the granting of a license to apparently legal undertakings, such as slot machines, cardrooms, and massage parlors, usually makes more difficult the control of their illegal use. Legislation that strips the police of control over the issue and revocation of licenses to places and activities that sometimes participate in vice operations, and vests this authority in officials who have no responsibility for the control of vice and crime, weakens police control. Influ-

ences brought to bear on the police to effect a relaxation of their control also include ridicule by the local press and suggestions and sometimes orders from the executive head of the city, individual members of the governing board, and influential citizens in the community.

The fact that there always have been vices and always will be as long as human beings remain human is often used as an argument for non-enforcement or for the repeal of morals legislation. If this argument were valid, however, laws which prohibit theft and murder should be repealed and the police should make no effort to apprehend thieves and murderers because there always have been and always will be such crimes.

Influences for Rigid Control. In opposition to these groups is the so-called reform element who thinks that the police can and should completely eradicate all forms of vice, even though they cannot eliminate stealing, traffic violations, and other offenses. A public that takes crimes against persons and property in its stride should not be overcritical of morals offenses. Every community of any size has some burglars and thieves, and it is reasonable to believe that it will also have some gamblers and prostitutes. The police cannot drive out every vice offender any more than they can drive out every thief.

Police Stand on Vice Control. The police are often caught between these two opposing groups and find themselves with the active support of only a small minority who are able to view the situation sanely. The chief is without rule of thumb or mathematical equation to guide him in formulating a vice-control policy, and consequently a high order of administrative judgment is required. He should not join either of the two opposing forces because the interests of the one are contrary to the public good and clearly illegal (to the extent that the acts are prohibited by law) and the goal of the other is impossible to attain. Aided by facts derived from analysis of the current problem, the police chief must map a course of action predicated on what can be done, on what is legal, on what is best for the community, and on what the public desires.

A sound stand for the police is to treat vice offenses as they would any law violation and do their best to eliminate them, just as they attempt to eliminate burglary, robbery, and speeding. So long as the police are charged with the enforcement of vice laws, they have no alternative but to impose such regulation or prohibition as may be required by law. Public attitude, however, influences in a subtle way the degree of enforcement. In some communities, for example, drunks are not arrested until they are totally incapacitated, whereas in others a person with the smell of liquor on his breath and showing only the slightest signs of inebriation is jailed.

The proportion of police effort to be directed into the several fields of police control is a matter of administrative judgment, based in part

on the interpretation of public opinion. If all police effort were devoted to vice control, there would still be some vice, just as there would be some accidents even though all police effort were devoted to traffic control. Since police man power is limited, it should be directed into the several fields in proportion to need, which is influenced somewhat by the wishes of the community. A community that is extremely traffic conscious justifies greater police attention to traffic control, and likewise a community that is intolerant of commercialized vice justifies a greater proportion of police effort in that field.

However, there can be no compromise with vice any more than there can be compromise with crime. Variations in enforcement pressure to meet variations in public opinion are made by varying the man power devoted to vice control, not by countenancing violations. Officers assigned to vice control must make no compromise, and their best efforts must be directed toward its elimination. For example, the enforcement pressure is reduced when the force devoted to vice control is cut in half, but the policy of strict enforcement should remain unchanged.

Commercialized Vice. First attention should be given to commercialized vice. The third-party profit magnifies its evils because it prompts operators to increase the volume of business through stimulating desire thus multiplying the concomitant social evils. The public favors the prosecution of the higher vice operators who make a living from the weaknesses of other people in a manner that harms them, and as the profits are decreased by continuous police attack, the vice overlords become less well entrenched in the community. Police effort to suppress vice activities drives them undercover where they are less obvious. This is desirable because some of the evil comes from public consciousness of the presence of vice and, when suppressed, the weak are less tempted and those who oppose vice are not so aware of its existence. Vice operations must not be flaunted before the public, and the police wisely direct their attention to the most flagrant and evident violations.

The policy of giving first attention to commercialized vice recognizes the sanctity of the home and the private life of the citizen and the desirability of dealing with the most important things first. Because of their limited man power, the police cannot eliminate all vice and consequently should direct their attention to the most serious offenses. Efforts are considered misdirected when the police in a community full of commercialized vice dissipate their energy in ferreting out noncommercial violations, especially those carried on in private homes. The police cannot condone noncommercial vice, however; they have no alternative but to take appropriate action against flagrant violations.

The police are justified in placing in the same category the enforcement of laws relating to narcotics, liquor, gambling, and prostitution, because

vice violations have the previously mentioned common characteristics. These laws have a moral aspect and are frequently unpopular; their violations are continuing offenses in both time and place; large profits are provided to a third party, the gangster, who promotes official corruption and establishes a monopoly by terror. Techniques dissimilar to those used in crime investigations are needed in the investigation of vice activities. An understanding of each of these four operations is helpful in their control.

NARCOTICS

Evils springing from narcotic addiction are so great as to leave no question as to the advisability of prohibiting the use of these drugs except under the direction of medical authority. Irreparable damage results to the body, mind, and moral fiber of the addict, society sustains a loss arising from his addiction, and his family and friends suffer in proportion.

The relationship between narcotic addiction and crime is clear-cut and evident. A habit that costs from \$10 to \$50 per day cannot be supported by a man of average means, and the physical condition of the addict makes unlikely that he will obtain employment sufficiently remunerative to enable him to purchase through illegal channels the drug his system craves. He must, therefore, obtain money for its purchase by illegal means. The damaged moral fiber of the addict prevents clear discernment between right and wrong; in consequence, addicts usually are petty thieves who frequently steal medical kits from automobiles parked near hospitals and sometimes burglarize doctors' offices and drugstores to obtain narcotic drugs. The use of narcotics stimulates crimes against persons as well as against property, and those under the influence of some drugs may commit vicious assaults and murder.

Strict police attention to the illegal use of narcotics is justified because addicts create a market for peddlers, and peddlers in turn attract addicts and seek to enlarge their clientele for profit. The police should do everything in their power, by conviction and treatment, to free their communities of peddlers and addicts.

LIQUOR

The diversity of liquor-control laws in the various jurisdictions makes impossible the formulation of universally acceptable enforcement policies. As compared to liquor control by some form of license, prohibitory liquor laws which make illegal the sale or possession of intoxicating liquors

present problems that are quite different, that are usually more serious, and that require more enforcement effort. Investigative procedures needed in their enforcement are similar to those used in the enforcement of narcotic laws. The police are sometimes tempted to be lax in the enforcement of prohibitory liquor laws because they are often unpopular and lack the support of many substantial citizens. The police must avoid a compromise, however; they may vary the enforcement pressure but they must not countenance violations.

In jurisdictions where the sale of liquor is regulated by license, the police must be watchful for such violations as the sale of intoxicating liquor to minors or the sale after hours, and they should undertake a periodic inspection of licensed premises for the purpose of observing compliance. As a rule, the suspension or revocation of the license provides an effective control. Proprietors of retail drink establishments are sometimes also in league with persons engaged in gambling, prostitution, and even more serious criminal activities.

In addition to making inspections to assure compliance with regulations, the police must minimize evils attendant upon the sale of intoxicating liquor. The use of intoxicants weakens the inhibitory powers, and persons under their influence are prone to fight, to disturb the peace, to commit acts of immorality, and to constitute accident hazards as pedestrians and as motorists. Damage to the central nervous system of the person who regularly drinks to excess results in the development of dipsomaniacs who constitute a difficult police problem.

GAMBLING

As in liquor control, diversity of gambling laws in the various jurisdictions makes difficult the formulation of universal enforcement policies. In one respect gambling may be considered the least serious of the four vices. It does no harm to the health, and fewer social evils result from its practice because injury is usually restricted to the individual participant. The moral stigma attached to gambling is less severe than to other forms of vice. This is evidenced by the frequency of church participation in lotteries and other games of chance to raise funds. Also, there is no serious economic problem involved so long as the person can afford his losses. On the other hand, however, gambling profits frequently exceed those in the other fields of vice, and consequently gambling offers a lucrative monopoly for gangsters. The police should give their first attention to the eradication of gambling that is organized and protected

in this manner. To do so, they must take the profit out of commercialized gambling.¹

The police chief must frequently make fine distinctions that call for a high order of administrative judgment in reaching sound decisions in the enforcement of gambling laws. As a guide to enforcement, the seriousness of gambling violations should be judged by their extent, the amount of money involved, the open manner of the violations, and the number of participants.

Commercialized gambling carried on for a money profit per se, as in the case of lotteries, bookmakers, policy rackets, slot machines, and games of any sort carried on in gambling establishments, are the most serious and should be dealt with decisively. Gaming devices for trade stimulation, such as bank nights, and other forms of lottery, and gambling by customers in pool and card games, in which the house receives a sum of money for each game played but does not participate in the game itself, are forms of gambling in which the proprietor does not receive a direct money profit; if they are violations of gambling laws, however, the police cannot condone their operation.

Charity gambling, conducted by churches, chambers of commerce, fraternal, social, and other organizations, is a form that provokes especially annoying to the police. Punchboards, various types of pools, lotteries, bingo, and other gambling games are the usual form. While the police chief may be justified in taking no action against charity gambling in the absence of a complaint, he must not condone the activity by granting permission so long as it is a violation of the law. He has no authority to suspend a law, and when so requested, he should explain his situation and state his policy clearly to avoid possible misunderstanding.

The police should not dissipate their limited force in ferreting out private gambling; action must be taken, however, when it is carried on flagrantly in public. Examples of private noncommercial gambling include bets of every variety between friends, pools made up among a group of friends on athletic and other events, and card games played within the home. Gambling in a private home for profit, and private clubs organized to circumvent legal prohibitions, however, should be impartially dealt with by the police.

Pinball, slot machines, and devices purported to be games of skill or amusement of every variety present difficult enforcement problems. The presence of an automatic payoff, however, makes obvious the necessary action in practically all jurisdictions; obtaining evidence of a payoff from the till is more difficult. The possession of such devices should be made illegal.

PROSTITUTION

The greatest evil of prostitution is the spread of venereal disease; also it is contrary to the American moral concept, and it breeds corruption and crime. The two principal factors to be considered in deciding on the advisability of its control are crime and disease; the police need not consider the moral aspects. A form and degree of control must be provided that will minimize the health and crime hazards.

The welfare of prostitutes should be included as an integral part of the control of prostitution, because consideration must be given to the health and economic welfare of these women if they are to be reclaimed. The average prostitute usually is emotionally unstable and lacking in moral fiber, owing to her heredity or as the result of her experiences; she is consequently ill equipped to compete in the economic struggle for a living. Reclamation includes training for useful employment and providing some means of livelihood and, in nearly all cases, the cure of venereal disease. These are social problems in which the police have an interest but not complete responsibility.

Methods of Prostitution. The operation of commercialized prostitution assumes diverse forms in the United States. Some variety is found in every American city, and all are found in cities with a lax enforcement policy.

The bawdyhouse with its madam and pimp operates in restricted districts as well as in communities where there is no red-light district. In cities having no restricted districts, the bawdyhouse may be disguised as a rooming house or massage parlor; in some instances an air of respectability is lent to the undertaking by having the girls operate in the private home of the madam in a good residential section.

Streetwalkers provide a common form of prostitution found in all cities except those having rigid enforcement. Streetwalkers operate in the neighborhood of hotels and recreation establishments and are frequently found in hotel lobbies, cocktail lounges, and other places that serve intoxicants. The modern hustler sometimes operates in an automobile which provides a semblance of respectability; the motorized prostitute, like her streetwalking sister in slum areas of another year, frequently delivers her goods without the conveniences of bath, thus multiplying the dangers of infection.

Call girls operate in most cities. They may devote full time to their profession, or they may have regular legitimate employment and prostitute themselves during their spare time, motivated by a desire for profit or adventure and, in some cases, by an abnormal sex appetite. Bellhops,

taxicab drivers, and madams notify the call girl, usually by telephone, of prospective clients, whereupon she repairs to the designated hotel room or other place of assignation. Other girls, with taxicab drivers as pimps, accept customers in apartments which may be in respectable parts of the community. Girls employed as trade stimulants in retail liquor establishments, dance halls, and other cheap recreation centers are frequently expected to obtain their principal remuneration by prostitution, their employment providing convenient access to clientele.

The mistress operates on the border line between prostitution and fornication. Young couples, either unwilling or unable to marry for economic or other reasons, sometimes enter into a clandestine sex relationship in violation of laws prohibiting fornication, but their acts and their relationship usually lack the elements of promiscuity, indiscreetness, and public flagrancy that justify classification as prostitution. The motives in these cases are construed to be more permanent and deep-seated than the emotion which prompts a customer to employ the services of a common prostitute, and money is not usually involved, although the man may partially or completely support the woman.

Fornication and adultery privately and discretely committed lack the socially evil consequences of prostitution and consequently are usually considered offenses of less immediate concern to the police. They are treated as private gambling in that the police do not spend time ferreting them out because their time is more productively spent when directed at commercialized forms of prostitution. However, as in gambling, the police have no alternative but to prosecute the promiscuous, indiscreet, indecent, flagrant, public commission of these acts.

Methods of Control. Police control of prostitution takes a variety of forms and is influenced by the law, customs, and traditions of the community, the attitude of the public, and the adoption of procedures considered best suited to the community. The forms of police control may be divided into three classes, with different degrees of enforcement of laws prohibiting prostitution. The first type has practically no enforcement and the last class has quite rigid enforcement.

The first type of control, most frequently found in small communities, provides neither regulation nor control and results from the view that since prostitution is illegal, it must not be condoned or recognized by regulation, but since it cannot be eliminated, nothing should be done about it. Prostitutes are then left to their own devices and bawdyhouses may be operated, usually in less desirable neighborhoods, where several may be found in close proximity to each other. The clients then know where to go, and the nuisance is restricted to a smaller area.

The second type of control recognizes prostitution by regulation and thus authorizes its operation. Regulation may be by some or all of the following: (1) The operation may be restricted by the police (sometimes with and sometimes without instructions from, or the knowledge of, higher authority) to a red-light district that may be an area or a limited number of designated houses, prostitutes being prosecuted when they operate elsewhere. (2) Prostitutes may be registered as a health measure to assure regular examination, or as a control device to restrict the admission of new prostitutes to the community and to provide the police with finger-prints and photographs of prostitutes as an aid in crime investigation. Each prostitute may be given a photograph identification card that is useful to officers charged with an inspectional control of prostitution and to health authorities in their examinations. (3) Periodic medical examination of prostitutes, usually in the office of the health department or a private physician, may be required in the erroneous belief that this will materially lessen the danger of infection. (4) Prostitutes may be regulated by prohibiting certain nuisances that attract public attention, such as window tapping, sitting in or calling from a window or doorway, soliciting or loitering on the streets or in recreational establishments, or being found in certain designated areas. Police action is directed toward the elimination of these undesirable activities rather than against the act of prostitution.

The third form of police control of prostitution is based on the view that, since it is illegal, it must not be condoned or officially recognized by any form of regulation and should be treated in the same manner as any other offense. The police attempt to eradicate prostitution as they attempt to prevent stealing, but with a frank recognition that neither can be completely eliminated.

This control is marked by the following desirable objectives: (1) the elimination of areas where prostitutes may operate with impunity; (2) the elimination of outward signs of prostitution, such as window tapping, soliciting, sitting in the doorway or window, hustling, the operation of pimps, call girls, and so on; (3) the prompt investigation of all complaints based on reports of infection or of nuisances created by the operation of prostitutes; and (4) the investigation, with or without complaint, of persons suspected of being pimps, madams, or prostitutes, and of establishments or locations where these persons are suspected of operating.

Social Benefits from Law Enforcement. The greatest benefit derived from the rigid enforcement of prostitution laws is the consequent decrease in venereal disease. Houses of prostitution are a major source of infection, and other types of prostitution are responsible for a large portion

of the remainder. Health officers contend that the incidence of venereal disease can be materially reduced by closing houses of prostitution and reducing other forms to a minimum.

The following fallacious arguments are frequently advanced in favor of the segregation of prostitutes to restricted areas: (1) Prostitution is necessary to enable persons to satisfy their natural biological sex impulses. Medical evidence does not support the contention that continence is harmful; the argument is also irrelevant when offered in support of red-light districts, because the elimination of houses of prostitution does not necessarily eliminate the sex act. (2) The elimination of houses of prostitution increases sex crimes. During the last two wars determined efforts were made to repress prostitution in order to lessen the incidence of venereal disease. These successful efforts did not result in an increase in sex crimes. Further, sex criminals usually do not seek sexual relief from prostitutes. (3) The elimination of houses of prostitution scatters prostitutes throughout the city. This is not true under rigid enforcement, since closing the houses drives the least competent to other communities or into other means of livelihood because there is not sufficient business for all prostitutes. Even though the scattering argument were true, the reduced volume of business would bring about a reduced incidence of venereal infection and consequently would be desirable. (4) Segregation makes it possible to eliminate unregulated prostitution. There is no evidence to support this contention either in Europe or in this country. The existence of an authorized house of prostitution weakens the resistance of the community to this form of vice, and consequently there is greater likelihood that prostitutes will operate beyond the restricted area. In cities having segregated districts, a larger number of prostitutes is usually found outside the restricted area than in communities which do not have segregation. (5) Medical inspection of prostitutes in segregated houses minimizes the danger of infection. Medical inspection of prostitutes offers little assurance of immunity from infection among customers. Examination of prostitutes in communities that require periodic examinations reveals that the incidence of infection is high; further, all prostitutes do not voluntarily register nor do they all report for examination.

Lax enforcement, especially when it permits bawdyhouses, has an aphrodisiac influence on the community. The desire for sex gratification is largely psychic and is stimulated when brought to attention by evidences of the sex act and by opportunity.

Rigid enforcement has many advantages; many of the evils of commercialization are eliminated, offensive appearances are avoided, and

consequently potential customers are less tempted, and persons who are opposed to prostitution are protected against flagrant violations of the law.

THE VICE DIVISION

The most effective police control results from the prosecution of persons who manage, or otherwise control, vice operations rather than the actual participants. Vice overlords in an activity such as gambling, who cleverly conceal evidence of their connection with these operations, are found in most large cities, and public officials and prominent businessmen are sometimes also involved. If the police are to control commercialized vice, they must curtail the activity of the high-level operators and not limit their attention to individual gamblers, prostitutes, and narcotic addicts. Likewise, it is more effective to prosecute a madam or a pimp rather than the individual prostitute; to prosecute the narcotic peddler rather than the addict; and to prosecute the proprietor of a gambling establishment rather than the employee or a customer.

The character of vice operations necessitates procedures dissimilar to those used in the investigation of ordinary crimes. Especially is this true if the police are to prosecute the higher-ups as well as their employee operators. The investigation of vice operations is usually conducted over a longer period of time than are crime investigations; undercover operators and funds are needed for the intensive investigation so necessary in successful enforcement. The police, or an undercover operator, must usually participate in a gambling game, make a buy of contraband, and be solicited by a prostitute in order to obtain a conviction.

Separation of Vice and Crime Investigations. Vice investigations should not be conducted by detectives charged with the investigation of crimes against persons and property because underworld characters engaged in vice operations are often valuable information sources to detectives investigating crimes. When detectives are also charged with the investigation of vice offenses, they either win the enmity of the vice operators and lose these sources of information or they effect an undesirable compromise. Detectives should not be required to prevent the illegal operations of persons from whom they must seek information useful in their investigations.

While detectives are freed from the task of ferreting out the violations of vice laws when they are not held responsible for vice conditions in the community, they should not permit flagrant violations in their presence. Department regulations should require immediate action against violations of vice laws that come to the attention of any member.

Separation of Vice and Juvenile Investigations. Likewise, the investigation of vice should be divorced from crime prevention or juvenile-crime control. Some departments have combined these activities on the fallacious theory that morals violations are inherent in most forms of juvenile delinquency. A separation of these operations is justified on the basis of dissimilarity of clientele, purpose, and process.

Specialization in Vice Control. A specialized division provides effectiveness in vice control because it places responsibility; it enables a selection of personnel on the basis of ability, interest, and integrity; and it also assures improved direction and training and promotes *esprit de corps*. A vice division is able to develop contacts and undercover operators and to organize public opinion favorable to a suitable control of vice.

The attitude of the public toward vice control and the administration and the conditions in the community should be taken into account in considering the creation of a vice division and determining its size. Usually, a department of 50 men should have one man devoting full time to vice control.

In the largest cities, specialization within the vice division is sometimes desirable. One or more men may be assigned to gambling, another squad to liquor control, another to narcotics, and a further group to the control of prostitution. However, specialization within the division is inadvisable, except in very large departments and in cities having unusually serious vice-control problems which justify the continuous attention of a squad of officers. During a short period of time, however, some specialization of attention may be desirable to treat intensively a particular problem in vice control.

Selection of Vice-control Officers. Officers should be assigned to vice control on a permanent basis and not on a short-period plan of service if effective operation is the sole consideration. Continuity of service promotes increased efficiency because the officers become more skilled, develop more contacts, and have available the services of a larger number of undercover operators. Vice control is sometimes considered undesirable police work, and consideration should be given to the interest and desire of the officers. A permanently assigned officer who is interested in vice control is more likely to do a thorough job than one who is temporarily assigned or lacks interest in the work. Vice assignments frequently have promotional limitations because of the size of the division and the specialized character of its work. Officers with potential capacities beyond the promotional possibilities of the division should not be assigned, except for experience, but instead, capable officers of limited leadership capacity should be selected.

Hours of Work. The vice division need not provide 24-hour service. It usually operates most effectively on a flexible, single tour of duty with the hours arranged by the head of the division to meet immediate needs; on some days of the week, the division may operate during certain hours, and on other days a different schedule may be used. Likewise, individual members of the division may work different hours according to the immediate need.

Utilizing Other Law-enforcement Facilities. Vice divisions profit from the resources of state and Federal agencies, and effective operation necessitates a close cooperation between these agencies, especially in narcotics and liquor control and less frequently in Mann Act violations. Likewise, the vice division should utilize all the resources of the local department. A close relationship with the members of the other divisions provides information sources and other assistance to the vice officers that multiply their effectiveness.

Patrol Responsibility in Vice Control. The evils of specialization and the dangers involved in granting exclusive management of vice control to a small unit should be considered in establishing relationships between the vice division and the other operating units of the department. Specialization is undesirable when flagrant vice violations are consequently ignored by other members of the department. Vice control, therefore, should not be the exclusive jurisdiction of the vice division but should be shared by the other divisions and especially by the patrol division.

Patrol participation in vice control lessens the force needed in the vice division, increases its efficiency, conserves the time and energy of its members, and enables it to focus attention on the more important violations, the higher-ups, and the well-organized operators whose roots are so deeply entrenched as to make impossible their successful prosecution except by intensive investigation. The patrolman may aid the vice division in a number of ways. He should make frequent but irregular inspection of licensed establishments and other vice hazards; he should immediately discover and eliminate the more apparent vice violations, thus quickly correcting conditions disastrous to the public; he should investigate and dispose of the less serious vice complaints; he should inform the vice division of conditions that he cannot cope with alone and of the existence and location of important vice operators on his beat, furnishing facts useful in further investigation or in a raid.²

The vice and patrol divisions should have a joint responsibility for vice conditions and both should be held accountable. Likelihood of graft is reduced when responsibility for vice control is shared by the patrol

Department regulations should require a patrolman to obtain the approval of his commanding officer before obtaining a search warrant or conducting a raid.

and vice divisions; it is then impossible for one of them to grant protection to vice operators, and the larger number of officers involved diminishes the possibility of corruption. A patrolman should be responsible for the eradication of vice activities on his beat; he should be required to report conditions with which he is unable to cope so that the vice division may give them special attention. The existence of a vice division should not excuse the patrol division for failure to eradicate vice conditions; and, on the other hand, the vice division should not offer in defense of its failure to eliminate vice activities the fact that the responsibility belongs to the patrol division.

In a city having district stations, the district captain should be responsible for vice conditions in his district and be required to eradicate undesirable conditions through the operation of his patrol force. Conditions with which he cannot cope should be reported to the vice division for action; his only defense for vice operations in his district should be that the problem was beyond his facilities and had been reported to the vice division for action.

Inspectional Duties. The vice division should investigate applicants, approve license applications, and inspect liquor and other licensed places of business and activities that are frequently vice hazards.³ The patrol division, when wisely utilized, effects a more complete inspection of licensed establishments and provides the vice division with information on questionable places. If the patrolman is to be held responsible for conditions on his beat, he must not be denied the privilege of inspecting any place in which he may suspect the existence of vice. On the contrary, the frequent inspection of establishments, the nature of whose business makes them suspect, should be a part of his regular duty.

In the event business places that require inspection are found in such number in a limited area as to occupy a substantial part of a patrolman's time, specialization may be desirable, but the supervisory difficulties usually justify the assignment to the patrol division of one officer devoting full time to such duties. If there are a sufficient number of officers assigned to such tasks within a limited area and during the same hours to justify the assignment of a sergeant to provide adequate supervision, the squad should be attached to the vice division, even though they be uniformed patrolmen, because their primary duty is vice control.

Planning Vice Control. In contrast to the traffic division, the vice division does little planning of the work of the patrolman in the field of vice control. Such planning is limited to the development of procedures for investigating and handling vice complaints and performing inspec-

tional services. The vice division is concerned with the effectiveness of these inspections by patrol and should stimulate their performance by suggestions and staff inspections.

Vice Records. A procedure for handling vice records must be provided that differs somewhat from the records system used for other police operations. Since the need for secrecy sometimes makes it advisable the immediate recording of vice complaints and reports in the usual records channels, other provision must be made to assure that they are accurately recorded and registered and properly followed through. The chief of police, by personal inspection, must assure himself that this is being done. Daily, weekly, and monthly summaries should be provided so that he may be kept informed of vice-division accomplishments.

Individual members of the vice division under the direction of the captain should have considerable freedom in the use of undercover operators and in the disbursement of undercover funds. The use of undercover money makes desirable an accounting system that will provide the necessary secrecy and at the same time assure accurate records of disbursements in order to permit an audit as a protection to the members of the vice division who use these funds.

The manner in which complaints and reports of violations are handled is an important factor in the relationship of the vice division and the patrol division.⁴ A patrol officer should deliver an investigation report in duplicate to his commanding officer containing all information regarding vice violations observed by him or received from a citizen. A case is made (but not recorded on the daily bulletin for reasons of secrecy) with a duplicate offense report sent with the duplicates of the investigation reports to the vice division. Patrolmen assigned to vice complaints should confer with their superior officers on methods to pursue and should investigate thoroughly by observation and inquiry. The commanding officer on receipt of investigation reports may permit the disposal of the case in one of three ways: (1) He may authorize a discontinuance of the investigation if the complaint proves unfounded. (2) He may authorize a raid. If the raid results in the arrest of the offender or proves that the complaint was unfounded, the case is considered disposed of; otherwise the investigation is continued. (3) He may request referral of the case by the chief to the vice division with one of the following reasons assigned: (a) The facts indicate the existence of a violation on which the patrol officers were unable to secure evidence; (b) the patrol officers were unable to ascertain definitely whether a violation exists and that assistance is needed; or (c) doubt exists as to the advisability of taking action at the present time.

For a more detailed discussion of vice records, see *Police Records*, pp. 144-147.

Problems Confronting the Vice-division Head. A newly appointed and aggressive head of the vice division in a community where vice operations have not been effectively suppressed is confronted with a difficult situation. The previously described relationship between commercialized vice and organized crime places him in a vulnerable position; the reputation of the department and the chief of police are also in jeopardy. Organized crime will usually have gained a foothold in such a community, and the vice head must then deal with highly competent criminal minds, who are often supplied with large sums of money to fight all attempts by the police to restrict their lucrative, illicit enterprises. The vice-division head must realize that every effort may be made to discredit him in an effort to effect his removal from his important post. He should evaluate these hazards and scrutinize procedures and activities that may offer vice operators an opportunity to embarrass him or his men.

He and his subordinates are under greater pressure than other members of the force, and they must, therefore, be most circumspect in their conduct. They must avoid the appearance of evil; they must avoid situations that may permit a frame-up; they must be constantly on the alert not to step inadvertently into a plot to incriminate them on false evidence. The importance of a system for the disbursement of undercover funds that will protect the members of the vice division against charges of the misuse of this money by accurately accounting for its expenditure has been previously mentioned.

The dismissal of cases and the release of persons charged with vice violations must be avoided, or effected with circumspection when the police purpose is best served by the dismissal of a relatively minor case in return for valuable evidence against more important vice operators. Otherwise the dismissal may be used as a basis for discrediting the vice division on the grounds that the case was fixed. Any action that may result in the loss of a conviction in court, such as ill-advised statements made by members either on or off the witness stand, must likewise be guarded against for the same reasons.

Greater-than-ordinary precautions should be taken in handling vice evidence because its loss usually results in the dismissal of the case, and the loss of the evidence by the police is usually interpreted by the public as proof of connivance between the police and the defendant. The seriousness of the consequences warrants a check of the procedures for handling evidence. Weaknesses should be overcome or vice evidence (except the most bulky sort, such as furniture, which is less likely to be lost) should be stored in a suitable vault under the exclusive control of the head of the vice division.

Raids rendered unsuccessful as a consequence of tip-offs are also frequently used to discredit the police, and the vice operators will attempt to make it appear that the tip-off was received from the vice division.

The vice-division members must also guard themselves against being forced into ill-advised action against minor, noncommercial violators that may result in arousing public indignation; raids on church buildings, homes, and privately occupied hotel rooms not used for commercial purposes are occasionally examples.

In the absence of an intelligence unit (see Chap 4), the head of the vice division is sometimes driven into assuming the responsibilities of the head of the intelligence unit in so far as are concerned breaches of integrity on the part of members of the force that come to his attention in the course of his vice-suppression activities. The newly appointed head of the vice division in a community where vice is rampant may expect to discover evidence of such breaches of integrity and he must deal with them and report the facts to the chief in the manner described in Chap. 4.

When in doubt as to the wisdom of taking action or as to its proper timing, the vice-division head should confer with his chief. He should not do so in routine matters, however, because it is unnecessary to burden the chief with such matters until they become a *fait accompli*. The wise chief will prefer not to have this information in advance, in order not to become involved in the event of a real or apparent tip-off.

Chapter 11

THE PREVENTION OF CRIMINALITY

Every competent police administrator has pondered the role of the police in preventing the development of criminal tendencies and in correcting them when discovered. He knows that criminal behavior persists in spite of police removal of crime opportunities and suppression of the criminally inclined. Despite increased police efficiency through improved techniques of repression and investigation, the crime rate apparently has not decreased.¹ Justice administered by arrest and punishment following the criminal act frequently strengthens criminal attitudes and tendencies; it does not prevent the development of criminals. Criminal justice is intended to deter and correct, not prevent. Long-term incarceration and punishment, however, do not effectively deter potential offenders. Also, the recidivism of a substantial proportion of persons sentenced to penal institutions indicates that this treatment often fails to restore the criminal to useful life in society; it is applied after the behavior pattern has become so set by habit as to make correction difficult.

Incarceration, whether to protect society from criminal depredations or to provide punishment or some other form of penal treatment, is expensive. The greatest cost, however, is the social and economic loss that results when life is spent in crime. These wastes may be avoided only by preventing the development of the intellectual-emotional condition that causes criminal behavior.

Effective crime control necessitates preventing the development of individuals as criminals. Limiting crime control to administering justice after the criminal act is as nonsensical as restricting fire control to fighting the blaze after it has started or limiting the control of disease to its cure after infection. Fire and disease are best controlled by preventing their inception; the causes of fires and disease, and conditions favorable to their growth, must be eliminated. Likewise, if crime is to be prevented, conditions that predispose the individual to criminal behavior must be corrected.

¹ Improved techniques sometimes decrease the incidence of a certain type of crime, such as kidnapping, but there is no evidence that those who otherwise might kidnap are not engaged in other forms of crime.

Efforts to repress criminal activities by the conventional means must not be abandoned; so long as there are criminally inclined persons, protection must be provided against them. Criminals must be repressed in their criminal behavior by suitable police supervision. The most effective efforts to prevent criminal acts will not succeed in every case, however, and persons who commit crimes in spite of police efforts must be apprehended and dealt with in the manner prescribed by law.

Progressive police administrators recognize a need for preventing crime by correcting conditions that induce criminality and by rehabilitating the delinquent. In determining the part which the police should play in this endeavor, it is necessary to study the causes of delinquency and the means for their elimination or correction, to inventory and evaluate community social-welfare activities directly or indirectly related to the prevention of criminality, and to discover, by analysis, delinquency-prevention tasks that the police are best suited to perform.

THE CAUSE AND PREVENTION OF CRIMINALITY

Knowledge of the causes of criminality would facilitate its prevention, but authorities in the field of criminal behavior are seldom in agreement as to the exact causes or their relative potency.² However, the following postulates, not yet statistically demonstrated, shed some light on criminal behavior and on what the police may do to prevent it.

1. The present potentialities for physical, intellectual, and emotional development of a child at normal birth following normal gestation are dependent exclusively on heredity, they are cast in a pattern established by parental genes and the accident of chromosome combinations.

2. The composite physical, intellectual, and emotional characteristics of the individual determine his personality and serve to differentiate him from every other person. Changes in these characteristics result from experiences; every experience causes some interaction between the biological organism (with its inherited characteristics) and its environment. Environmental stimuli (experiences) may retard or promote physical, intellectual, and emotional development. This process is called adjustment.

3. An isolated act, as well as the total behavior pattern of a person, reflects his personality and is induced by the attempted satisfaction of certain drives or impulses that exist in all persons; the intellectual-emotional condition of the person determines whether the drives are kept

² See August Vollmer, *The Criminal*, The Foundation Press, Brooklyn, N.Y.

in suitable control and consequently whether his reaction to a stimulus is socially acceptable or not.³

4. The intellectual-emotional condition of a person is the composite of his intellect and emotion that may be called the emotional state of his mind. It is his intellectual and emotional state as conditioned by adjustment, *i.e.*, by all the experiences to which he has been subjected.⁴ The intellectual-emotional condition is reflected in his habits, attitudes, disposition, and interests, and they all influence his thoughts, feeling, and acts.

5. The emotional development of an individual is more important than his physical and intellectual development in creating a favorable intellectual-emotional condition and the resultant behavior, because emotions usually influence the intellectual-emotional state more strongly than reason. Persons emotionally excited, therefore, may act in a manner that is repugnant to them when emotionally normal; it is said of them that their emotions got the better of their reason.

6. Emotional development has its source in physical and intellectual development and is influenced by the conditions that influence physical and intellectual growth, and healthy physical and intellectual development favors a healthy emotional growth. Nevertheless the development of the emotions does not parallel physical and intellectual growth, and in consequence emotionally immature persons may have sound and well-developed intellects and bodies.

7. Conflicts arouse emotions, and conflicts arise in the adjustment

The drive may result in criminal conduct if such behavior wins esteem from his social group. For this reason the moral standards of the community, the neighborhood, associates, and family, as reflected in customs, traditions, conduct, reactions, disciplinary acts, and so on, strongly influence the behavior of individuals. The social acceptability of an act is determined by the standards of the social group. An act socially acceptable to one group may be socially unacceptable to another. Conflicting standards result in competition, *i.e.*, the individual may be torn between the desire for the esteem of a parent to be gained by exemplary conduct and the desire for the esteem of the gang to be gained by criminal conduct. The choice is influenced by the relative regard the individual has for the two conflicting groups and by the relative weight of the conflicting standards. The relative weight is influenced by habit patterns (a long-standing and firmly entrenched habit of honesty is not lightly cast aside), by thought patterns (akin to conscience), and by emotional habits (uncontrolled anger, for example), and these are influenced by discipline, training, and experience. Some individuals commit socially unacceptable acts to win recognition from those who do not esteem good conduct, even though the consequences are unpleasant. The use of the term "socially acceptable" as used here, however, is restricted to the acceptability of the act by society generally, not by a small group.

Experience is the process of an organism being subjected to a stimulus and reacting to that stimulus.

of the personality to the environment. The process of adjustment, therefore, strongly influences the emotional development.

8. The person who reacts in a socially acceptable manner to his usual environment and to all chance stimuli is considered socially well adjusted. This suitable adjustment has resulted from satisfactory experiences in the adaptation of his personality to his environment so that his resultant intellectual-emotional condition is conducive to socially acceptable behavior.

9. The person who reacts in a socially unacceptable manner to his everyday environment and to any chance stimuli is considered socially maladjusted. This poor adjustment results from unsatisfactory adjustment experiences, *i.e.*, from a failure to adapt the personality to the environment without serious conflicts that adversely influence emotional development. Unsatisfactory emotional development induces socially unacceptable behavior.

10. Behavior that causes a life to be socially less useful and less satisfactory to the individual may be considered undesirable to the extent that it interferes with a full, useful, and enjoyable existence for the individual and his relatives and friends. Behavior that makes an individual less desirable and useful as a social being is not necessarily criminal, but the causal maladjustment, if uncorrected, may finally result in criminal behavior; the resultant intellectual-emotional condition is favorable to behavior that has all the characteristics of criminal behavior except the accident of legal prohibition.

11. The intellectual-emotional condition that results in adult criminal behavior nearly always has its origin in childhood experiences that have unfavorably conditioned the mind and emotions. Experiences that create a sense of insecurity and inadequacy are generally conceded to be important influences in conditioning the mind and emotions to react in a socially unacceptable manner.

12. Social maladjustments should be prevented and causal intellectual and emotional conditions should be corrected, if criminal behavior and less offensive, but socially unacceptable, noncriminal behavior is to be prevented.

13. Efforts to control behavior must provide favorable experiences as well as prevent unfavorable experiences. The experiences of the individual are usually stronger influences than the inherited biological characteristics in conditioning the mind and emotions to react in a socially acceptable manner.

14. The correction of an unsatisfactory intellectual-emotional condition may necessitate the treatment of both the individual and his environment; the treatment of the individual in the environment that produced the maladjustment, without correcting the contributory environmental

factors, is not usually effective. The importance of correcting an undesirable factor is in proportion to its influence on the intellectual-emotional condition.

15. There is no single cause of criminality; instead, the causes are as many and varied as the unfavorable experiences. If causal factors operated singly, evaluation of their effects would be simplified; the large number of factors that influence conduct are capable of such an infinitude of combinations, however, as to prevent classification for the purpose of ascertaining scientifically the resultant effect in behavior. Accurate appraisal of each experience is impossible also, because it cannot be consistently labeled either good or bad; it is good or bad only as it has a favorable or an unfavorable influence on the intellectual-emotional condition of the individual.⁶

16. Research has indicated, however, that some situations have been experienced more frequently by those whose behavior patterns are less socially acceptable and less frequently by those whose behavior patterns are more socially acceptable; on the other hand, other situations have been experienced more frequently by those having more socially acceptable behavior patterns and less frequently by others. It does not follow that the high-risk experiences invariably lead to crime, or that the favorable experiences are assurance against criminal behavior. On the other hand, the fact that some persons have come through high-risk exposure is not proof that the high-risk situation is not a contributing factor in criminal development. It seems probable, however, on the basis of present limited experience, that the individual has a greater chance of developing a favorable intellectual-emotional condition when unfavorable experiences are prevented and favorable experiences fostered; the process of his adjustment is then less extensive and a suitable adjustment is more likely to be made because it involves fewer and less serious conflicts with attendant emotional upsets. An intelligent approach to delinquency prevention consists of eliminating high-risk situations and detecting and correcting any evil results in persons exposed to them.

17. Since there is no single cause of criminality, there can be no single method to prevent it. A delinquency-prevention program, to be successful, must correct factors that tend to develop unsatisfactory intellectual-emotional conditions. To do this, the efforts of all agencies and institutions must be directed toward providing experiences that favorably influence the intellectual-emotional development.

18. Three processes are involved in the prevention of criminality:

All persons do not react to influences in the same manner, and consequently a condition is not necessarily a criminality factor per se. A physical handicap, for example, may be a factor in developing one person into a criminal and another into a great man.

(a) the eradication of unwholesome influences, (b) the provision of wholesome influences, and (c) the correction, by individual treatment or adjustment, of any damage that has been done to the intellectual-emotional condition.

19. A socially undesirable intellectual-emotional condition responds to correction more readily in youth than in maturity and in its earliest stages of development rather than after it has become set by habit.⁶

Agencies whose relationships with the child enable them to discover and correct maladjustments, arranged in the order of sequence of influence, are: (a) the home, (b) the school, (c) the police, (d) the juvenile court, (e) the probation office, and (f) the correctional institution. The proportional number of children influenced by each agency follows the same order; the home has contact with all children and the correctional institution with relatively few. The seriousness of the maladjustments to be corrected and the severity and money cost of the treatment procedures provided by these agencies are in the reverse order. Treatment by criminal justice agencies which is not needed to correct maladjustment is undesirable; it diverts the limited facilities of the agency from persons in greater need, and the experience of unnecessary treatment may prove harmful to the individual. Each agency in this list, therefore, should discover and treat maladjustment before it progresses to a stage that may require the correctional treatment of an agency below it on the list. The home should rear the child in such a manner as to make unnecessary correctional treatment by the school, or at least to lessen the need for school treatment. The school should correct maladjustment so as to make unnecessary police attention; the police, in turn, should do everything in their power to correct the maladjustment so that the offender does not need court action. Each agency, however, must pass the problem on to the next agency in the list when the seriousness of the maladjustment places treatment beyond the limits of its facilities.

POLICE PARTICIPATION IN THE PREVENTION OF CRIMINALITY

Such a large proportion of Part I crimes⁷ are committed by boys under twenty-one years of age,⁸ that if the police are to reduce the crime

rate substantially, something must be done about the young offender. More important than the immediate reduction of the crime rate, however, is the future life of these youngsters. All confirmed adult criminals started their careers as juvenile offenders, and if society is to reduce its criminal population, youth must be prevented from becoming delinquent and developing into confirmed adult criminals.⁹ This is the most important part of delinquency prevention. It is accomplished by preventing intellectual-emotional states that tend to induce criminal behavior and by correcting the maladjustment of individuals who have given evidence of delinquent tendencies.

Justification for Police Participation in Delinquency Prevention. Police leadership in the promotion and operation of community activities in the prevention of criminality, and police action in the prevention and correction of delinquency are justified on several grounds:

1. The police department is created to prevent the commission of crimes, and no other agency has been created for this primary purpose. The schools are primarily concerned with education, the church with meeting spiritual needs, and the social agencies with the provision of specific social services. These agencies are not primarily interested in the application of their services as a specific remedy to cure criminal behavior or as a prophylactic to protect the individual exposed to high-

risk situations. They provide their services to those who seek them without special regard to present or probable future delinquent behavior, except that some may wish to avoid providing services to the criminally inclined. Even the probation office and juvenile court usually reserve their attention to cases of delinquency, thus limiting their services to curative rather than preventive treatment.

The police see crime prevention as an immediate necessity and the failure to prevent criminality as their ultimate responsibility; they must contend with the results of a poor delinquency-prevention program. The prevention of criminality is a primary police objective, and they have a greater interest and responsibility for it than any other agency.

2. The police department is the logical community delinquency-prevention center because it is usually the first to discover persons, situations, and conditions that need attention. It is also the logical agency to start the correctional process. If the police do not initiate action, usually no one will, partly because the other agencies do not know about the conditions, partly because they lack a suitable entree (they usually do not offer their services but only provide them when requested), and partly because they are not primarily interested in the prevention of criminality. The police also have superior facilities for supervising the individual delinquent.

3. The police department is in a strategic position to obtain the effective cooperation of interested groups and agencies in the furtherance of a specific delinquency-prevention program. The causes of criminality are complex. Powerful social, economic, educational, and legal influences underlie such specific factors as blighted areas, lack of play space, unsuitable school programs, limited opportunities for employment, and marital dissension. Programs separately proposed to prevent delinquency often emphasize one factor and ignore others equally important; co-ordinated community planning is then sometimes difficult. A plan of social treatment requires the sustained cooperation of homes, schools, churches, the municipal government, and all social agencies. But these institutions are not primarily interested in the prevention of criminality; to them it is only a by-product. The police may sometimes take preventive remedial action without aid from other agencies, but in other cases the facilities of many community agencies must be sought. For example, the problem child should have the early attention of competent specialists. Responsibility for such treatment rests with such agencies as the child-guidance clinic and child-welfare agencies; the school, the church, relief agencies, and others may also assist. Someone must direct the attention of these agencies to the need if the correctional process is

to be started, and in many cases obtain a higher priority for treatment than would be given if the delinquency-prevention aspects were ignored or not known. The police department is a logical agency to coordinate the voluntary efforts of all other agencies and groups and to direct their combined attention to the solution of specific problems in the prevention of criminality.

4. Today's children will be tomorrow's citizens whose feelings will then determine the public attitude toward the police—an attitude of great importance because it will either facilitate or retard the accomplishment of the police purpose. The attitude toward the police of the person who is more likely to offend is more important than the attitude of others. Future police service, therefore, will be facilitated if the police establish favorable relations with the children in their community; the more likely the child is to become delinquent (and finally an adult criminal), the more important it is that the police develop a wholesome relationship with him. If the police fail to establish this relationship, or are prevented from doing so, not only will their future task be made more difficult but, in addition, a greater proportion of the juvenile population will be launched on criminal careers in consequence of unwholesome attitudes toward the police. On the other hand, if the police deal directly with problem children and in the course of their treatment win their friendship and respect, the likelihood of the child becoming an adult offender will be materially reduced.

5. The best interests of neither the offender nor society are invariably served by prosecution. Harsh action may, in fact, create an unwholesome attitude that may arouse dormant criminality and thus increase the likelihood of criminal behavior. The police should direct their efforts at keeping people out of jails and prisons, so long as this may be done without jeopardy to public peace and security. Progressive police administrators sometimes impose on offenders, who are not professional or persistent criminals, requirements of conduct (and, in some cases, treatment) that are acceptable to the offender, in lieu of prosecution; in many instances the case is disposed of by warning. Such action should never be in any sense a punishment. This pre-judicial action by the police, when wisely administered, is considered a proper police discretion. Other agencies in the chain of law enforcement are not designed for this purpose. The nature of police service makes it necessary that the police decide, relatively infrequently in consultation with the prosecutor, the desirability of prosecuting the offender. In the exercise of this discretion, the police should dispose of both adult and juvenile offenders without prosecution when the best interests of the individual and society are thereby served.

Objections to Police Participation. Objections to police participation in the delinquency-prevention activities under discussion in this chapter are based on three erroneous beliefs: (1) that the police are not qualified, (2) that their performance of these tasks results in an unwholesome experience for children, and (3) that other social agencies are designed for this purpose.

Some policemen are, in fact, not qualified by selection, training, and philosophy of service to do effective work in the prevention of delinquency, but this proves only that they are poorly qualified for general police service. Wisely selected and suitably trained policemen are well qualified to perform routine delinquency-prevention tasks, and specialists in delinquency prevention may be selected on the basis of any desired qualification. If these requirements are met by social workers employed by other agencies, they can likewise be filled by policemen selected for that special work.

The true police philosophy is a positive one of aid and assistance to all, not a negative one of prohibition and punishment. The social-welfare character of police service is not a new concept, and many police tasks have social rather than specifically criminal significance. The principles underlying the prevention of criminality are not contrary to modern police philosophy, nor are delinquency-prevention tasks inconsistent with other police duties.

The second misconception is that police performance of juvenile-crime control duties provides an unwholesome experience for children because they are brought into personal contact with criminals, other undesirable characters, and the unwholesome aura of police headquarters, and also because they are given a police record. Police quarters are used chiefly by persons who are not criminals, and infrequently is a criminal seen by anyone but policemen in a well-designed police building. Ill-kept quarters are an inexcusable condition invariably reflected in the quality of police service provided in them. If police quarters are not suited by design or condition of maintenance to the presence of children, they are not suited to the many other social-welfare duties the police must perform, and these conditions should be corrected. Police quarters that are appropriate to the high type of citizens who come there on business are suitable for visits from children. The atmosphere of police quarters, however, is created by the personnel at work, rather than by the physical conditions in the building. Police quarters are a place of refuge and aid, and children should be encouraged to feel as free to come to their police station as they are to go to the post office or corner drugstore. The modern police department welcomes and encourages visits from children; the experience is a wholesome one for both the child and the police.

The police record is a term coined by newspaper reporters that has no particular significance and no true implication of misconduct. It is not synonymous with criminal record. Police files contain the names of the best citizens of the community as complainants, victims, witnesses, erring motorists, accident drivers, injured pedestrians, and so on. These persons have, therefore, a police record, and in the same sense, children who have come to police attention as victims, problems, delinquents, and as lost persons have police records; but these are not criminal identification records, since they merely recount facts relating to police contacts or investigations. A police record of a juvenile offender is more carefully protected from the public eye than a court record,¹⁰ and the entire experience of the child handled by competent policemen is less disturbing and more favorable than the experience of a child taken to juvenile court.

The third misconception is that the juvenile court and the probation office are designed for the specific purpose of correcting maladjusted children and that the police should not undertake to duplicate this work. As has already been pointed out, the objectives of the juvenile court and the probation office are curative rather than preventive, and their treatment is limited to offenders, usually the more serious, who are brought to them. The 65 per cent of juvenile court cases that the police originate do not represent all the problem children brought to police attention.¹¹ Of all juvenile offenders dealt with the following police departments referred the percentage indicated to the juvenile court:

Area	Per cent	Area	Per cent
Baltimore, Md.....	8	Lincoln, Nebr.....	6
Berkeley, Calif.....	37	Los Angeles, Calif.	42
Buffalo, N.Y..	18	Pasadena, Calif.....	18
Chicago, Ill.....	70	Sacramento, Calif.	16
Denver, Colo.....	39	St. Paul, Minn.	32
Detroit, Mich.....	36	San Diego, Calif.	48
Evanston, Ill.....	3	San Francisco, Calif.	68
Greenwich, Conn.....	27	San Jose, Calif.....	16
Kansas City, Mo.....	53	Santa Monica, Calif.	5

Most of the children not referred to the juvenile court did not need such severe treatment, and these were better for not having had the experience. Had these departments been forbidden to deal with the children that were not sent to juvenile court, many would have been neglected until their behavior became so severe as to necessitate making them wards of the juvenile court. The departments listed above recognized their obligation to dispose of juvenile offenders to the best interest of the child and society. They were aware that the child should not usually be brought into juvenile court if his maladjustment could otherwise be corrected; they undertook by other methods to deal with these juvenile offenders. In most instances their efforts were successful, and the child was saved from the unwholesome experience of juvenile court; in cases where they failed, the child was brought to juvenile court somewhat later but probably no less redeemable than he was in the first instance.¹²

Objections to police participation in the correction of the delinquent and predelinquent child usually result from a lack of understanding of police objectives and programs. The police should break down barriers between themselves and other community agencies having related objectives by close coordination of plans and activities and by detailed explanations of police policies and long-range objectives. The press should likewise be given these explanations and kept currently informed of accomplishments. Frequent conferences with newspaper editors are helpful in maintaining press interest and understanding of present and future programs.

THE POLICE DELINQUENCY-PREVENTION PROGRAM

If real and permanent progress is to be made in the war on crime, the police must develop and promote a program designed to prevent the development in children of intellectual-emotional conditions that may result in criminal behavior and to correct unsatisfactory conditions when they become implanted. The development of a favorable public attitude toward law enforcement, especially on the part of youth, is an important part of this task.

The police are not equipped to carry out successfully such a program by themselves alone, but they can obtain support and assistance by harnessing all community resources to the task. Needed are the facilities of health and child-guidance clinics, the professional skills of physicians, psychiatrists, and psychologists, and the help of teachers, ministers, and laymen. The police must enlist the aid, focus the attention, and co-

Further discussion of police participation on the adjustment of the individual delinquent and predelinquent is found in Chap. 12.

ordinate the activities of every agency and group in the community whose services may assist in the accomplishment of the delinquency-prevention program, and they must follow through to assure that the assistance is effectively and continuously applied to the end.

While directed primarily at youth, the program should not exclude attention to adults confronted by problems that are social welfare in character rather than predominately criminal; the juvenile division is better suited to these tasks than any other police unit. Such attention is justified on a delinquency-prevention basis also, because conditions of a social-welfare character may induce or provide opportunity for criminal conduct in adults as well as in children. The police should, therefore, promote the welfare of the physically, mentally, or emotionally ill and the aged as well as of children, by obtaining more adequate social-welfare care for those in need and by searching for missing persons.

Police Delinquency-prevention Activities. Some activities in delinquency prevention produce a greater return for effort expended, and some are more specific police responsibilities than others. The police alone operate some, while others require the resources of one or more community agencies. The nature of the police delinquency-prevention program is determined by the field of activity given the greatest emphasis, and this is influenced by the needs of the community. A well-rounded program should include the following activities:

1. The eradication, by patrol, inspection, supervision, and investigation, of elements that induce criminal tendencies and of conditions that promote criminal activities, especially among children. The police should discover and correct or repress opportunities, temptations, and other influences that contribute to delinquency; the individual is thereby protected. Delinquency-inducing influences may be rendered less potent by curfews and other prohibitions directed at those who may become delinquent; by regulating, in some enterprises, closing hours, sales, and admission and employment of young people; and by detecting those who may contribute to delinquency and repressing their activities or removing them by prosecution and incarceration.

2. The discovery of delinquents, near-delinquents, and those exposed to high-risk situations, and the treatment of the poorly adjusted. Some must be referred immediately to the juvenile court; the maladjustment of others may be corrected without such action by utilizing all community resources to this end. For example, a child-guidance clinic may assist in developing a treatment program which may eliminate wayward tendencies. Medical and psychiatric treatment may both be needed, as well as the assistance of the home and the school, in carrying out the

program. The prevention and correction of maladjustment is an essential part of the program.

3. The planning, promotion, and direction (to meet specific needs in crime prevention) of recreation, character building, and other group activities that provide wholesome influences. Membership on community councils and on boards of directors of community agencies enables the police to win community cooperation and to exert an influence on long-range community planning in delinquency prevention.

Police tasks that must be undertaken to carry out these activities may be divided into (1) patrol and inspection, (2) investigation, and (3) the coordination and direction of community resources toward the removal of harmful influences, the provision of wholesome ones, and the correction of the maladjusted individual. The last listed tasks are the subject of the next chapter. Patrol, inspection, and investigation are treated in the paragraphs below.

Patrol and Inspection. The suppression and eradication of unwholesome influences is accomplished by the repressive activities of inspection and patrol. Investigation, also essential in effective patrol and inspection, is discussed later.

The primary purposes of delinquency-prevention patrol and inspection are (1) to eradicate unwholesome influences and to lessen the opportunity for misconduct by the presence of the police, the enforcement of regulations, and the apprehension of persons who may exert a harmful influence, (2) to discover persons in need of treatment for the correction of present or incipient maladjustments, (3) to assist in the supervision of problem children being dealt with by the juvenile division, and (4) to discover a need for group delinquency-prevention activities.

Every community contains individuals who, because of greediness or sexual abnormality, are a grave danger to youth. Such persons include those who sell obscene literature, who permit and promote gambling by children, who sell liquor and sometimes narcotic drugs to youngsters, as well as the sex pervert who preys on small boys and girls. The conviction of such persons may entail much investigation; their repression and discovery are important purposes of patrol and inspection.

Important to delinquency prevention are the orthodox police inspection and supervision of taverns and other liquor establishments, dance halls, poolrooms, bowling alleys, swimming pools, skating rinks, and other places of commercial recreation, and the control of parks, playgrounds, vacant lots, public gatherings, and other places where youth may congregate. At these places they may have opportunities for misconduct, or be subject to unusual temptation or the unwholesome influence of sex

perverts and other undesirable characters attracted by the presence of young people.

Whether patrol and inspection duties should be the responsibility of the regular patrol division or the juvenile division is influenced by the size of the department and the nature and time and place distribution of the tasks. Patrol and inspection, as well as other juvenile-crime control duties, should be performed by patrolmen on their beats according to a procedure developed by, and under the staff inspection of, the juvenile division, except when the performance of these tasks interferes with the accomplishment of regular patrol duties or when they can be accomplished substantially better by a specialist. The duties may be so concentrated in a limited area and during a period of the day, however, as to justify their performance by a member of the juvenile division. This condition may prevail in the case of certain especially hazardous recreation establishments, such as dance halls and skating rinks, where need for supervision may be nearly continuous during business hours. A further need for a delinquency-prevention patrol is in areas where girls and young women are subject to unfavorable influences. The assignment of a policewoman to such areas is often desirable. A special juvenile-division patrol should not be assigned to perform tasks that may be as satisfactorily accomplished by the patrolman on his beat. Reasons of economy in man power, and also the advantages secured by the participation of all members of the department in delinquency-prevention duties, dictate the use of the regular patrol for such tasks.

Some taverns and other drinking establishments, taxi dances, and other places of recreation are vice hazards as well as delinquency hazards for youth, and both the vice and juvenile divisions have an interest in their supervision. The task of their inspection should be assigned to the division having the greatest interest, judged by the frequency and severity of violations. This division should also be charged with the investigation and approval of applications for licenses for these establishments and the investigation of reported violations of regulations.

Investigation. Investigations to ascertain facts essential to successful detection, diagnosis, and treatment of individuals may be performed in whole or in part by juvenile-division members engaged in these tasks. In addition, there are other investigations to be made by the juvenile division. Just as the vice division investigates vice violations and the detective division investigates serious crimes, so the juvenile division must investigate some incidents, individuals, and conditions for purposes of delinquency prevention.

If neglect caused by failure to fix responsibility and friction caused by overlapping responsibility are to be avoided, the relationships between

the juvenile, detective, and vice divisions in the investigation of cases must be precisely defined by regulations. Some cases provide an inevitable duplication of interest between two or more of these divisions, as when juveniles are involved in vice offenses and in crimes the clearance of which is the responsibility of the detective division. The following factors should be borne in mind in establishing duties and assigning cases.

1. Undivided responsibility is desirable. It is advisable to hold one division responsible for the investigation and ultimate clearance of crimes in a designated class, regardless of the age of the offender or victim.
2. The age of the perpetrator of a crime cannot usually be established before his apprehension.
3. In some serious crimes a juvenile may be the victim or the offender.
4. The juvenile division is not designed to investigate the most serious crimes.
5. The primary purpose of the detective division is to investigate serious crimes and clear them by the arrest of the perpetrators.
6. A police task should be assigned to the unit that has similar or related duties.

Juvenile-division Case Assignments. On the basis of these facts the detective division should investigate all felonies and all cases believed to be felonies as well as all cases of stolen property involving juveniles, except the following which should be assigned to the juvenile-division investigative staff, regardless of whether a juvenile is involved or not:

1. Offenses against the family: domestic relations cases, desertion, abandonment, nonsupport of wife or child, neglect or abuse of child, encouraging or contributing to the delinquency of minors, employment of children in injurious, immoral, or improper vocations or practices, and admitting minors to improper places.
2. Sex offenses, except forcible rape, prostitution, and abortion. Included are sex perversions, licentious advances, incest, statutory rape, bigamy and polygamy, and other offenses against chastity, common decency, morals, and the like.
3. Possession or sale of obscene literature, pictures, exhibitions, and so on.
4. Kidnapping of juveniles by relatives not for extortion.
5. The theft of bicycles.
6. All other crimes in which juveniles are involved as victims or offenders, including gambling, but excepting all other crimes regularly assigned to the vice and detective divisions.

7. Missing persons.
8. Mental cases.
9. Other cases in which persons need social-welfare service, and cases in which designated juveniles are suspected of any offense.

Justification for these assignments and relationships seems apparent. The assignment to the juvenile division on the basis of age of the perpetrator of cases ordinarily investigated by the detective division is not advisable for the reasons given in Chap. 7. Juveniles reported by name as offenders should be assigned to the juvenile division, however, even though they may be suspected of crimes ordinarily investigated by the detective division. Should such fact be established, the detective assigned to that class of crime should be notified in order that he may determine whether other crimes have been committed by the same offender (see Chap. 7). The assignment of bicycle thefts to the juvenile division is logical, however, because the majority of these thefts are by youngsters and juveniles are usually the victims; this crime, therefore, is more consistently a juvenile offense than any other involving theft, and the investigating officer consequently works almost entirely with boys. There is further justification when bicycles are registered by the juvenile division.

Vice offenses (except gambling) involving juveniles should be investigated by the vice division for the reasons previously given for assigning detective cases to the detective division without regard to age, and for the added reason that these violations usually come to police attention through vice investigations. An exception is made of gambling by juveniles because this offense is usually not related to adult gambling in place, time, or proprietorship, and gambling by juveniles is usually reported to the police by parents and school authorities and is infrequently discovered by the vice division in their suppression of commercial gambling.

Sex perversions, licentious advances, and possession or sale of obscene literature, pictures, exhibitions, and so on, should be assigned to the juvenile division because (1) young people are frequently the victims, (2) sex perverts are victims of an inherent condition that is usually not susceptible to treatment in the form of threats or actual incarceration, and (3) these offenses are not usually committed for money profit which might justify their assignment to the vice division. Forcible rape should be assigned to the detective division, regardless of the age of the victim or offender, because of the seriousness of the offense.

Domestic relations cases that may involve no actual offense, offenses

against the family, kidnapping of a juvenile by a relative not for ransom, and some sex crimes (statutory rape, abductions and compelling to marry, bastardy, incest, and bigamy and polygamy) should be assigned to the juvenile division. In these crimes family relationships are usually involved, and the offenders are usually not the professional type of criminal ordinarily dealt with by the detective and vice divisions.

Missing persons and mental-derangement cases should be investigated by the juvenile division; these cases are not criminal in character and usually have social implications that deserve the attention of workers trained in social welfare rather than in the more conventional police tasks. Persons are usually missing as the result of some social maladjustment.

Some police departments assign cases of missing juveniles to the juvenile division and of missing adults to the detective division on the ground that missing adults are sometimes found to have been murdered. Missing persons are not found to have been murdered in a sufficiently great proportion of cases to justify this assignment, however; the juvenile division should cover this contingency, however, by working in close cooperation with the homicide officers.

POLICE ORGANIZATION FOR DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

The police must participate in delinquency prevention, whether a special division is created for this purpose or not. The need for a special unit in all but the smallest departments is clearly indicated by the amount and importance of work to be done; also, the special skills and techniques required in some delinquency-prevention tasks are markedly dissimilar to those needed in other police undertakings. Furthermore, the objective of delinquency prevention diverges from the usual police objective; success in delinquency prevention keeps people out of jail, whereas the detective and other special units are charged with putting people into jail. This difference in objectives sometimes results in clashes, especially between juvenile and detective divisions.

The difficult task of coordinating delinquency-prevention activities with other police activities is the responsibility of the chief; the juvenile division should be a separate unit on a par with the patrol, detective, traffic, and vice divisions, if it is to operate most effectively. To place this unit at any other level will result in its program being stultified by objectives not in accord with its activities. For example, the practice found in some departments of operating a juvenile bureau in the detective division results in conflict. Detectives frequently recognize no treatment except jail, insist on prosecution in every case, and quarrel with the

juvenile court for not sending all offenders to the reformatory.¹³ One of these inherently incompatible objectives must gain ascendancy when they are both in the detective division and, since the primary detective objective is to put people in jail, the delinquency-prevention objective invariably is subordinated. Delinquency prevention is restricted to eradicating unwholesome influences when the important tasks of adjustment are not in accord with detective philosophy.

The Title of the Delinquency-prevention Division. Some departments avoid the disagreeable connotation of crime by calling their delinquency-prevention division a juvenile division. This practice has some merit because children are not then reminded by the title on office doors and in police nomenclature that their police experience is designed to keep them from becoming criminal; parents are also more willing to seek police aid for their problem children when to do so does not seem to imply that the child is delinquent or is being treated so that he will not become criminal. The fact that the title "juvenile division" does not accurately describe delinquency or crime-prevention activities does not seem to justify using a title that may interfere with the accomplishment of its purpose. Since there are many social-welfare services provided by the division that are neither delinquency preventive nor juvenile, the title that most exactly describes its activities is "division of social welfare." The title "juvenile division" however, is used throughout the remainder of this book.

Juvenile-division Personnel. The number of persons to be assigned to the juvenile division cannot be stated categorically because it is influenced by the size of the department, the degree of specialization that must be provided, the nature of the delinquency-prevention program, facilities not available through other community agencies that must be provided by the police, and the interest of the chief in this work. The incompatibility of the delinquency-prevention objective with the objectives of other branches of police service emphasizes the need for a juvenile division. For this reason, in departments so small as to justify the assignment of only one person to delinquency-prevention duties, this officer should head the juvenile division and plan department activities for the prevention of criminality.

While basically the objectives of the detective division and the juvenile division are quite different, officers assigned to them have many common experiences, since all are required to investigate crime reports and arrest law violators. Well-qualified detectives now in service have adjusted these inherently opposed philosophies to a great extent, but the most socially minded occasionally object to delinquency-prevention practices in individual cases in which they have a special interest.

Delinquency-prevention services involve varied activities, and special abilities are required for some of the tasks. The division should contain the number of policemen and policewomen necessary to provide needed supervision over recreational centers and other places that might otherwise provide unwholesome influences to youth. It should also contain a number of officers to investigate offenses by juveniles and to apprehend and prosecute persons offending against children. These officers should be trained and experienced policemen, and it is important also that they have a suitable concept of the social-welfare character of police service and a genuine interest in delinquency-prevention work. Training in the social sciences and some background and experience in social work, especially in group work in the fields of recreation and character building, is desirable for juvenile-division personnel.

Finally the juvenile division should contain qualified adjustment officers who should be trained social workers skilled in the application of psychiatry and psychology in the diagnosis and treatment of maladjustment. If the adjustment section is to accomplish its purpose, it must be a child-guidance clinic, although it will not be called by that name. The completeness of the clinical facilities will depend on the convenient availability and adequacy of such services in the community, although the juvenile-division staff should be qualified to diagnose and treat the less serious cases of maladjustment without outside assistance.

Delinquency prevention and work with juvenile offenders is not exclusively for policewomen. Women workers are needed in the police organization outside the field of delinquency prevention, such as assisting in detective investigations and serving as matrons, clerks, stenographers, fingerprint technicians, and secretaries. Within the juvenile division the woman worker also has a place. Some delinquency-prevention tasks are better performed by trained men, others by women prepared by training and experience for such work, while still others may be performed equally well by a man or a woman.

As a general rule the head of the juvenile division should be a man with a well-rounded police experience rather than a woman, because (1) men have a better understanding of the attitude of other divisions and especially that of the detective division toward crime-prevention activities, (2) men are better able to win cooperative support from other members of the department, (3) men are physically and emotionally better able to withstand the pressure of the work and are, therefore, less likely to become irritable and overcritical under emotional stress, and (4) men are usually better supervisors of women than are other women.

In addition to careful selection of personnel to assure adequate interest and native ability, attention must be given to training, not only for the members of the juvenile division but the entire department as well, if the program of preventing delinquency is to be successfully accomplished.

Organization of the Juvenile Division. A juvenile division of suitable size should be organized into three bureaus to perform the following services: (1) patrol and inspection, (2) investigation, (3) coordinating services, including adjustment of the individual delinquent, group activities, and some other services related to youth and the prevention of criminality. The registration of bicycles may be assigned to this or one of the other bureaus. The coordinating bureau may be broken into sections and, when the activity is considered especially important and the staff large, into separate bureaus for some of these services. More than one investigator justifies specialization in assignments in the same manner as in the detective division.

In even the largest departments, personnel assigned to investigations and coordinating services should work only in the daytime, except under unusual circumstances. Officers engaged in patrol and inspection, however, should work during the hours of greatest need, beginning their tour at some hour between 4:00 and 8:00 P.M., although need may justify a daytime patrol also, especially on Saturdays and holidays. The patrol bureau should have a relationship to the investigation bureau similar to that of the patrol division to the detective division (see Chap. 7).

The need for continuous supervision of the members of the patrol and inspection bureau during the absence of the commanding officer of the juvenile division, especially at night, may be met by assigning this task to the commanding officer of the patrol division then on duty, except when the number from the juvenile division justifies the appointment of their own supervisor.

The need for a commanding officer to head one or more of the bureaus becomes apparent when the number of officers assigned and the nature of their duties make their supervision beyond the span of control of the captain of the division. The rank of the bureau head will be influenced by the number of officers assigned and the importance of their tasks.

While the functions of patrol, inspection, investigation, adjustment, group activities, and so on must be provided, it is not always necessary to create separate organizational units for each. The need for separate bureaus or sections is influenced by the size of the division and, especially in the case of patrol and inspection, by the extent to which the patrol division performs these tasks. Further, there must not be too sharp a division of functions among the members of the juvenile division; all

of them, under some circumstances, should perform tasks outside their regular assignment. For example, those assigned to patrol and inspection must perform many investigative tasks, and members assigned to investigations may devote a part of their time to patrol and inspection duties, especially to meet infrequent and irregular needs. All members of the division, and of the police department as well, should participate in adjustment and group activities.

Specialization has certain advantages, but there are disadvantages as well. Each task should, therefore, be analyzed to determine if it should be performed exclusively by the juvenile division, or if it might be entrusted to other members of the force with equally effective and satisfactory results. Many duties may be performed by officers not assigned to the juvenile division. Participation by the entire department has two important advantages: (1) The resulting conservation of the time and energy of the juvenile-division personnel permits greater attention to tasks that require skill and experience beyond that of other department members. (2) The stimulated interest of officers thus indoctrinated in the philosophy of delinquency prevention promotes informal delinquency-prevention work in many police activities.

It is important, therefore, that department regulations define clearly the relationships within the juvenile division and between this division and other police divisions.

Delinquency Prevention by the Patrol Division. Patrolmen should participate as actively in the prevention of delinquency as they do in traffic and vice control and in the preliminary investigation of crimes. In dealing with incidents assigned to the juvenile division, patrolmen should have the same relationship to the juvenile division as they have to the detective and vice divisions in dealing with incidents in their special fields. Patrolmen should investigate offenses involving juveniles either as offenders or victims, supervise recreational establishments and areas containing delinquency hazards, and assist in the adjustment of the individual delinquent.

The patrolman may render important services in the adjustment of the individual delinquent by supervising and making friends with problem children on his beat. The juvenile division should keep him informed regarding the identity of problem children and the nature of their difficulties; they should provide him with suggestions as to procedures to follow in dealing with the individual child. In this way each policeman serves as the big brother of the delinquent boys on his beat and maintains an interest in their welfare and a watch for undesirable influences.

The patrolman should establish friendly relationships with all boys on his beat and promote in them a respect for law and a favorable attitude toward its enforcement. He should be alert for evidence of persons and places undesirably influencing children and youth; he should be persistent in his efforts to eradicate these influences and to direct youthful activities into wholesome channels.¹⁴

Cooperation among Divisions Essential. The juvenile and vice divisions should cooperate in the supervision of licensed places that are delinquency hazards and in all vice cases involving juveniles; such cases discovered by one division should be reported to the other. The juvenile and detective divisions should cooperate closely in all cases involving juveniles to which the detective division is assigned. Members of the detective and vice divisions should conduct their investigations of such cases with first thought to the welfare of the juvenile. It is desirable that juveniles be questioned in juvenile-division quarters, although this requirement is not necessary when members of the detective and vice divisions obtain the assistance of an officer from the juvenile division when questioning juveniles, especially on sex matters. Girls or young women should not be questioned except in the presence of a policewoman or some other female member of the department. When requested, police-women should assist the detective division in all investigations involving women, and the detective division, on request, should assist the juvenile division in its investigations.

Notification of Parents. The police should recognize that parents have a natural interest in the welfare of their minor children and a legal responsibility for their care and conduct. The police should notify the parents immediately of incidents involving their children and work with them closely in disposing of the matter. When an officer has occasion to reprimand a child on his beat, he should call on the parents at once and report the matter. When a minor is apprehended, a first police act should be notification of the parents. Police failure in this respect is reprehensible. Further, the misbehavior of the child may reflect some parental deficiency that must be considered in dealing with the case. The delinquent child represents a problem of adjustment that of necessity involves the parents. The cooperation of the parents is essential to the most successful treatment of the offender.

Fingerprinting Juveniles. As a general rule, juvenile offenders should not be fingerprinted by the police for the reasons that the experience may have an unfortunate influence on the child and usually any advan-

The patrol procedure described in Chap. 6 must be emphasized so that motorized patrolmen will devote sufficient time in getting acquainted with the people and conditions on their beats.

tage to be gained thereby is not sufficiently great to justify this risk. If not forbidden by law, exceptions may be made in the case of persistent offenders or when the prints are desired for comparison with latents found at crime scenes. In such cases the approval of the chief or the head of the juvenile division should be obtained.

Juvenile-division Records. Certain operating records must be maintained by the juvenile division secretary in smaller departments and by a section in large departments in which the duty is too great for the division secretary. The juvenile-division records must be an integral part of the police records system, but separate division files must be maintained for active and inactive adjustment cases, and an alphabetical index file should be kept for all juveniles contacted by the department. Copies of these index cards should be transmitted daily to the social-service exchange, to the schools, and to the juvenile court or chief probation officer. The juvenile court, in turn, should send to the police the names of children otherwise brought to their attention so that the juvenile division may have a complete record of the more serious problem children. A file should also be maintained of all the social-welfare agencies in the community, listing their services and cross-indexed for convenience to the adjustment officer in search of some special service.

Spot maps showing the locations of juvenile offenses and the residence of the offenders (with the nature of the offense indicated by pins of different color or shape) are important community diagnostic tools that should be maintained by the juvenile division. It should also design forms to be used by the records division in preparing summaries of delinquency-prevention activities; other summaries relating to adjustment cases should be prepared by the division secretary.

Disposing of the Juvenile Offender. The juvenile offender should be delivered by members of the detective and vice divisions to the juvenile officers for final disposition. Trained members of the juvenile division should undertake diagnosis of the offender in order that suitable treatment may be initiated.

Chapter 12

THE JUVENILE OFFENDER

The treatment of individuals who are, or who are likely to become, maladjusted should be participated in by the police. No other agency is created primarily to correct incipient maladjustments, and the limited facilities of the other agencies force them to restrict their attention to children in greatest need, thus neglecting near-delinquents and those exposed to high-risk situations. In consequence, the choice sometimes lies between no treatment for the youthful offender and some treatment promoted, directed, and, in some instances, provided by the police. Up to the limit of its ability, the police juvenile division is the logical agency to treat the maladjusted and those in danger of maladjustment, to bring the attention of other agencies to adjustment problems beyond police capacity, and to follow each case through to assure successful adjustment.

CORRECTIVE ACTION

There is no arbitrary rule as to the proportion of juvenile offenders the police should treat themselves, in contrast to the number they should send to juvenile court. A decision must be made in each case on the basis of the best interest of the child and society. The police are justified in attempting to correct maladjustment by themselves and with the aid of other agencies, instead of referring the child to juvenile court, as long as they have a reasonable chance of success. They may thus prevent the creation of a criminal by correction and by shielding the offender from what may prove to be an unnecessary experience that brings him one step closer to penal treatment.

Preliminary Diagnosis. The police should make a preliminary diagnosis of each juvenile offender who comes to their attention in order to ascertain tentatively the most suitable treatment. Juvenile offenders may be dealt with by the police in one of four ways: (1) outright release with no further action, (2) simple treatment by the police alone consisting principally of supervision on a voluntary basis agreed to by the parents, (3) a relatively prolonged program of treatment, also on a voluntary basis, necessitating the services of a number of social agencies, or (4) referral to juvenile court.

Factors to be considered in selecting the most suitable treatment for the individual are (1) the attitude of the child, (2) conditions that need correction, (3) persistency in misbehavior, and (4) the seriousness of the offense. A rebellious and uncooperative attitude may indicate the need for some treatment beyond the scope of the officer who detected the offender, although in some cases an understanding patrolman may establish a relationship with the child that will quickly correct an unsatisfactory attitude. Conditions that need correction may relate to the child's physical well-being, such as need for shelter, clothing, food, or medical or dental care; or to his mental condition if he is feeble-minded, epileptic, or otherwise in need of institutional care or clinical treatment; or to his home conditions if his parents or other members of the home are engaged in criminal activities, or are insane, feeble-minded, epileptic, alcoholic, or drug addicts, or if for any reason they fail to provide needed supervision. Persistency in misbehavior may be reflected in school reports of truancy, in police offense records, or in the statements of persons having knowledge of the child's conduct. Although the wickedness of behavior is a social concept having little basic significance in measuring the need of the child for treatment, the seriousness of the offense usually cannot be ignored in planning treatment because of the attitude of the public and the hazard to other persons.

Juvenile Court Cases. Children whose maladjustment the police have failed to correct and those charged with grave offenses are referred to the juvenile court, either by filing a petition or by referring the case to juvenile probation officers for action they deem advisable. In deciding whether to refer a delinquent to juvenile court or to deal with the offender themselves, the police must consider the degree of delinquency as reflected in the personality of the child, the seriousness of the offense and the persistency of the undesirable behavior, the problems involved in correcting unsatisfactory environmental factors, and the relative availability of treatment facilities to the department and to the juvenile court.

Outright Release. Normal children, who are not maladjusted and who require no treatment, are released outright when they become involved in mischievous, childhood pranks. The incident should be discussed with the parents, and in most instances when the offense includes property damage, a settlement is arranged. These cases should usually be disposed of by the beat officer alone, who should then submit a report (with a duplicate to the juvenile division) containing essential facts relating to the offense, the circumstances, and the offender. On the basis of these facts and a check of their records, the juvenile division should decide whether the child should be further investigated to ascertain the need for treatment.

Voluntary Reporting. When the preliminary diagnosis reveals little evidence of delinquent tendencies but indicates that the child needs some attention, the offender should be placed under voluntary supervision with the consent of his parents. He should be required to report to the adjustment officer once each week for an indefinite period, the duration being influenced by the attitude and responsiveness of the child to treatment.¹

On the occasion of the weekly visit, the adjustment officer (or officer assigned to an individual case) should interview the child privately, ascertain his free-time activities, his interests, and his problems and needs with a view to establishing friendly relations, to promoting wholesome interests, and to discovering and correcting any condition that may be inducing the wayward behavior. Since there is not a sharp line of distinction between the offender placed under voluntary supervision and the one treated more intensively as an adjustment case, the adjustment officer may use on the former some of the adjustment procedures described in the paragraphs that appear below.²

Juvenile Traffic Violators. The juvenile traffic offender is a privileged violator in many communities for the reason that the red tape, incon-

¹ In order to regularize the action, some departments arrange to have one or more members of the juvenile division deputized as officers of the juvenile court, either as probation officers or as referees. Failure to comply with an order of the court officer results in prosecution of the case before the juvenile court. This action may also be taken when members of the juvenile division have not been deputized.

² MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR VOLUNTARY PROBATION PROGRAM: [From the Los Angeles Police Department, *Manual on Juvenile Procedure*]

Time limit. No program of less than 3 or more than 6 months should be considered. Three months is the minimum time required to adjust the boy effectively, and in most instances the boy is just beginning to show marked improvement and an indication of satisfactorily completing the program by this time. In 6 months' time, if the program has been conscientiously applied by the officer and absorbed by the boy, the case should be terminated as satisfactorily adjusted. Where it appears that a program of 6 months will be insufficient to effect the readjustment, the case should be handled in some other manner.

Agreement. There must be a complete agreement of the parent, child, and officer in every element of a specific program designed to effect the rehabilitation of the child.

Definite responsibility. The child must be capable and willing to shoulder the responsibilities entailed in following through to successful completion the assignments of such a program.

Checking progress. A periodic check of the child's progress may be made through contact in the home, through the school, through the regular office interviews, through sealed letters from the parent and delivered by the boy, and by a complete diary of daily occurrences kept by the boy. Many other means of checking his progress are available to the experienced officer.

venience, and loss of time involved in juvenile court prosecution frequently causes the officer to release the juvenile violator with a mere warning. This situation has been overcome by some departments by placing the offender under voluntary supervision with the consent of the parents and requiring him to write an essay on safe driving or attend a course at the traffic-violator school or otherwise dealing with him as indicated above.

The Adjustment Case. Juvenile offenders who, on the basis of the preliminary diagnosis, are neither released outright nor placed under voluntary supervision nor referred to the juvenile court, are considered in need of some treatment to assist in a satisfactory adjustment. The most delinquent children fall within the class of adjustment cases. Community facilities are usually so limited as to make diagnosis and treatment of all but the more serious ill-advised. The seriousness of the maladjustment must therefore be estimated in order to provide a priority rating and thus assure treatment for those in greatest need.

A file should be established for each adjustment case, separate from the offense file, for recording detailed information regarding the diagnosis and treatment.³

Further Diagnosis. When the preliminary diagnosis indicates a need for adjustment work, a more complete diagnosis must be made to discover factors in the individual and in his environment that need correction. Decisions on how the corrections are to be effected must also be made. In diagnosing adjustment cases, officers must rely heavily on community resources. The first task is to make a detailed and thorough investigation of the child and his family. Interviews must be had with the child, the members of his family, and frequently with associates as well, and information relating to the child and his family must be obtained from community social agencies.⁴ These sources sometimes provide a clue as to needed treatment. When the services of other agencies are to be called for, they should participate in the diagnosis to establish the need for their special services. For example, the services of a child-guidance clinic, the psychology department of universities, or a medical service bureau,

may be utilized to assist in the diagnosis, or to verify conclusions drawn by the adjustment officer.

Police Treatment. Treatment must be based on a careful study of the individual and his environment to discover influences that have resulted, or may result, in maladjustment. Maladjustment is a condition that varies greatly in severity, consequences, cause, and methods of treatment. The intellectual-emotional condition that results in undesirable behavior may correct itself without conscious outside treatment; it may be corrected by one or more conferences with a friendly officer; or it may require the services of specialists in medicine, psychiatry, neurology, and psychology. The treatment may require the aid of other social agencies (relief, child welfare, recreation, school, and church are examples) in the correction of individual and environmental deficiencies, and it may require basic changes in environment that necessitate action by the juvenile court.

The principal objective of the adjustment officer in treating the juvenile offender is to focus attention on the problem. The assistance of agencies in the community interested in child welfare should be secured. Also, arrangements should sometimes be made with the Y.M.C.A. and the Boy Scouts to promote a wholesome new interest, and invariably the assistance of the teacher and other school officials should be solicited. In each instance an effort should be made to persuade some church to accept responsibility for the spiritual guidance of the boy. The beat officer should also be informed of the identity of the problem boys on his beat so that he may unobtrusively get to know them, win their friendship, and assist in instilling in them the ideals of good citizenship and a high regard for law enforcement.

The officer may discover that adjustment necessitates some form of medical treatment. It then becomes his responsibility to see that the child receives this medical service. The police have no funds for this purpose and must rely on community resources. In most cases, however, it is not possible to find physical causes for the delinquency. Frequently home influences are unsatisfactory and, in rare instances, it may be necessary to refer the case to the juvenile court for the purpose of having the child removed from the custody of his parents.

Follow-up on Adjustment Cases. It is the purpose of the adjustment officer to direct the attention of all agencies to the problem at hand and to maintain that interest by a regular and persistent follow-up. This means that he must periodically ascertain progress in the treatment program and response to it, and revive and maintain interest in the child by interviewing the teachers, the pastor, or some worker in the church,

and representatives of the other agencies working on the case. The cure is never certain, and one of the important features of this work is a continued and persistent follow-up which impresses other agencies with their responsibility in the adjustment case.

In summing up the activity of the police in their adjustment work, it should be emphasized that they are not duplicating the work of other agencies but are merely serving as a focusing force that stimulates other agencies to give continuous attention to the correction of the maladjustment of the individual delinquent. By dogged effort, the adjustment officer succeeds in maintaining their interest until the correction is made.

Scope of Police Delinquency Prevention. The discussion of police activities in preventing criminality up to this point has been restricted largely to the youthful population. This does not mean that the police should make no effort to correct the maladjustment of older offenders. The juvenile court age, arbitrarily established by statute, varies among the several states and has no particular significance as a line of demarcation between groups of offenders who are treated in importantly different ways.

Adult offenders are not invariably prosecuted for their transgressions, and every humane police chief has made exceptions to a rigid policy of prosecution in cases where he has felt that the interests of justice were thus best served, in terms of what was best for both the individual and society. Also, friends, relatives, and parents sometimes request assistance in correcting the unsatisfactory attitude and behavior of young people, and similar requests are received in adult cases involving family relationships and social-welfare and psychiatric problems as well as criminal activity. The practice of disposing of offenders without prosecution is common in the field of traffic control where treatment devices, beyond court appearance, in the form of warnings, traffic-violator schools, and traffic clinics are provided, and where variation from the uniform procedure is based on a review of the previous driving record. The practice should not be restricted to traffic offenders, however, but should be extended to include more serious offenders. The ineffectiveness of the present treatment of dipsomaniacs and exhibitionists and sex perverts, for example, is a challenge to the police.

COMMUNITY ACTIVITY

The police should assume a position of leadership in the development and operation of community councils for delinquency prevention (see Chap. 24). They should also participate in the promotion and direction

of all social-welfare services, especially those having important roles in delinquency prevention and in the adjustment of individual delinquents.

The staff of the juvenile division may participate in community activities directed toward the prevention of delinquency and cooperate in community surveys and studies. The police are thus provided an opportunity to promote community cooperation in crime prevention and to influence related community planning. Policemen may also serve on the sponsoring committees of recreation and character-building agencies and appear at public meetings of young people's groups.

Boys' clubs, Boy Scouts, the Y.M.C.A., and other group athletic and recreational organizations provide wholesome influences having delinquency-preventive value for the entire youth population. Boy Scouts seldom become criminals, and boys' clubs are helpful in dealing with delinquents.

Police participation does not mean that the police officer should do the work of scout and recreation leaders. Such activity by the police serves only as a stopgap to patch up the defects of a poor recreation department or a faulty group-work agency. More ultimate good is accomplished when the police point out gaps in the community services and promote action to remedy them. The police may properly perform such duties during a limited period of organization, however, but after the activity is developed, they should withdraw and leave its operation to some other agency.

These and other group activities are designed primarily to provide wholesome interests that will make normal children better citizens. The community has the responsibility of helping each child become a successful adult with a well-developed sense of citizenship responsibility. The police are also interested in this process, but its promotion is not their primary task.

These activities are also of value in preventing the development of delinquent tendencies and in correcting maladjustments; the police should promote their continued growth and development. Active participation by individual policemen, especially in group activities not clearly the responsibility of some presently existing organization, is further justified by the close relationship thus provided between the boys and police officers. Friendships between boys and policemen are important influences in the development in youth of a suitable regard for law enforcement.

The real problem in preventing criminality, however, is found among the 2.5 per cent of the children in the community who are the problem children destined to become delinquents and finally adult criminals if

their maladjustments are not corrected.⁵ The 97.5 per cent of the children who are normal will not become criminals and consequently are not a police problem.

The police are in a position to discover districts in the community and segments of the youth population in special need of recreational and character-building activities, and when necessary they should promote the extension of these services and participate in their provision. As the activity is directed more and more specifically at meeting the needs of potential delinquents, the justification for police participation increases.

The total police energy available for the prevention of delinquency is so limited that if it is expended on the entire juvenile population, the influence is spread so thin as to make it ineffective. Accordingly it should be directed at individually selected children and segments of the population in greatest need living in areas where the existing resources are inadequate. Since police man power is limited, the police must evaluate its expenditure in terms of ultimate good to be derived as compared to the returns from a similar expenditure in other delinquency-prevention activities.

The danger of stigmatizing the participants of group activities designed primarily for the delinquent and near-delinquent must be minimized by also admitting good boys. Advantages also are derived by the problem child in companionship with better boys. Close supervision will lessen the inherent dangers in this association for the better boys. Police effort spent in these activities on good boys is not wasted; it promotes an appreciation of law enforcement in the youth of today, who will be the adult of tomorrow.

Police participation in community group activities is justified on the basis of their public relations value as well as on their delinquency-prevention value. There is no more positive and direct way to the hearts of the parents than through their children. Parents see many things through the eyes of their children and, through their youngsters, may thus discover that policemen are friendly, helpful persons who devote a relatively small part of their time to restrictive and punitive tasks.

In the field of recreation, the police may go beyond the conventional provision of playground space in sections of the community lacking adequate facilities. For example, some departments rope off street areas for play space, tobogganing, skating, and similar sports, and provide

street showers in the summer by an attachment on selected fire hydrants (see Chap. 22). While the need for these activities is greater for boys than for girls, many group activities are utilized by the youth of both sexes.

Organized Activities. Some police departments provide buildings and supervisory staff for boys' clubs and related activities. Many organize neighborhood baseball clubs and other athletic activities to meet the needs of problem children. Some organize athletic leagues that provide a variety of activities for youth. Provision of summer camps is a frequently found police delinquency-prevention activity. The camps are sometimes for all boys in the community, but the police may use the facilities thus provided for the children in greatest need. Sometimes special camps are provided as a reward for boys who have worked in junior traffic patrols and similar activities.

Some police departments organize, uniform, and equip drill teams, bands, drum and bugle corps, and other activities for boys. Unfortunately the opportunity to participate is sometimes unwisely limited to the relatives of policemen and of influential citizens in the community, to the exclusion of problem children. These organizations provide an opportunity for wholesome influences for the delinquent and maladjusted child that should not be overlooked.

Junior Police. Junior police organizations have been created by some departments to capture the interest, channel the energy, instill the ideals of good citizenship, and enlist the support in law enforcement of problem children. As in every other kind of organization, the success of junior police units depends upon their activity. An organization without a real purpose, that is limited to emblems, badges, caps, and titles, is an empty thing that usually collapses under its own weight. Training programs should be provided, and the force must be utilized in useful endeavors so that the boys will be kept busy and interested.

Opportunities to utilize the energies of these boys to advantage exist in such traffic projects as the control and education of pedestrians, assistance at parades, athletic events, and other large public gatherings, the distribution of traffic literature to pedestrians, parked cars, businessmen, and to homes. Other police activities offer similar opportunities. For example, the boys may be used in canvassing neighborhoods, parking lots, garages, and other places to disseminate information regarding regulations, to obtain information wanted by the police, to discover wanted automobiles, to warn of the operation of criminals, to suggest a check on the security of premises, and so on. In the absence of organized junior police, Boy Scouts or the junior traffic patrol may be

used to the advantage of both the boys and the police in these and similar activities.

Junior Traffic Patrol. The junior traffic patrol (see Chap. 8) is a form of junior police created primarily to aid in traffic control rather than to prevent crime, though it is regarded as an effective means of building good citizenship. The traffic division has the greatest interest in its successful operation and the greatest responsibility for the consequences of its failure and, rather than the juvenile division, it should be assigned the task of organizing and supervising junior traffic patrols.

Bicycle Control. Bicycling is essentially a youth activity and, since the primary purpose of bicycle registration is to repress bicycle theft, the investigation of which properly belongs to the juvenile division, it follows that bicycle registration should also be a juvenile-division task. Not such a clear case exists for the organization, direction, and supervision of bicycle riders' clubs, bicycle-violator schools, and junior traffic courts: these activities, while restricted to a youth clientele, are primarily to ensure traffic safety. They should, therefore, be assigned to the traffic division, although to assign them to the juvenile division would not be a serious mistake.

Volunteer Workers. Volunteer workers should be utilized in the police delinquency-prevention program, especially in activities that would otherwise be impossible because of the amount of time needed in direction and supervision. Most volunteers will be lay persons having interest in the special activities but no training in social welfare, recreation, or other group work. Civic, fraternal, patriotic, and other community organizations should organize committees on delinquency prevention that may accept some responsibility for providing volunteers for special occasions and activities.

Volunteer workers having some special ability from experience and training may be drawn from fields of related activities, such as teachers, scout leaders, Y.M.C.A. workers, playground directors, social workers, and so on. University students in the social sciences usually have an interest in delinquency prevention and find participation in these activities a valuable and highly desired training experience.

Big brothers' and big sisters' associations are created to provide lay assistance to problem children. Laymen may be utilized in the adjustment program, however, without formal organization.

There is controversy as to the value of lay volunteer work with individual delinquents. It seems apparent that no harm will result from such efforts, and there remains the possibility of some actual good from the wholesome experiences thus provided the child. Further, such close participation provides citizens with a more complete understanding of

police objectives in the prevention of criminality. These activities may be justified without regard to their actual value in the treatment of the individual child on the ground that citizen understanding is essential to the accomplishment of the police delinquency-prevention program.

Public Education. A program of public education in delinquency prevention will assist in winning essential support from the public, the social agencies, budget makers, and other public officials. The public education of children is likewise important. Public education in all fields of police activity should be planned, directed, and supervised by a public relations unit serving all the operating divisions, but the juvenile-division staff must be utilized in carrying out the program (see Chap. 23). The juvenile division should provide speakers and subject-matter material and cooperate with the schools in the development of curricular and extracurricular activities designed to instill in the students the ideals of good citizenship.

Chapter 13

POLICE RECORDS

The preceding eight chapters have defined and described the duties of each unit performing primary police tasks, as well as the relationships between the several operating units. The auxiliary services will be dealt with in a similar manner in the following two chapters. Organization units best suited to perform the secondary police tasks must be established and fitted into the organization structure. The primary and service functions must be articulated by a careful and adequate definition of duties. The relationships between all divisions will then be clearly established.

Minimum police records requirements are considered first, however, because of the important role played by records in police operations, administration, and auxiliary services. The organization of the auxiliary services may then be discussed more intelligently.

RECORDS REQUIREMENTS¹

The effectiveness of a police department is directly related to the quality of its records. They provide a means of communication among the members of the department and thus integrate the various branches of the service into one coordinated unit. Also, they contain information helpful in the performance of routine duties, in the wise direction of police effort, and in supervision and control.

Day-to-Day Operations. A suitable records system contains information useful in the investigation of crimes, in the identification of persons and property, and in daily routine tasks. Investigation reports of crimes and other matters of concern to the police, when classified, indexed, and filed, provide information useful to officers working in the field. Records also enable the police to trace the history of the possession of property in their custody and to record its final disposition, thus preventing its loss or unauthorized release and assuring its return to its rightful owner.

Supervision. Each police task must be made the responsibility of someone, and each officer must be given unavoidable obligations if admin-

¹This section is based on *Police Records*, and contains numerous excerpts and summaries from this volume, only a few of which have been so identified by notes.

istration is to be successful. Police records register assignments and provide a check on accomplishment so that errors may be traced, inadvertent oversight and willful neglect detected, and successful performance assured.

Suitable records provide a basis for reviewing work and thus help supervisory officers in their day-to-day operations by revealing deficient or improper handling of cases; they show whether officers were correctly dispatched to the scene of criminal operations and the progress of the investigation. Failures to follow up on investigations or otherwise correctly dispose of police business are revealed, and the records thus prevent the individual policeman from conducting an investigation or discontinuing it in violation of departmental policy and sound police practice. The police position is strengthened when suitable records enable the department to disprove charges of improper police action by providing prompt and complete answers to specific allegations and to inquiries from the administrative head of the city, members of the governing board, or citizens.

Development of Strategy. Much of the information necessary to arrive at sound administrative decisions may be gleaned from records and summary reports which give a picture of present conditions and problems faced by the department, of the work of individual employees, and of the activities of whole units in dealing with these problems. Police records reveal significant changes in criminal and other activities requiring police attention; prompt analysis of the records guides the police official in meeting such unusual needs.

The first step in solving a problem is to diagnose it. For this purpose the police administrator wants facts concerning the character, location, time, and circumstances surrounding the occurrence of crimes and other incidents requiring police action. Records aid him in the determination of engineering, educational, and enforcement needs. With suitable information, he can identify police hazards, isolate the elements requiring attention, and direct police effort toward eliminating the hazards or reducing their potency.

Success in preventing crimes and accidents, in apprehending criminals, and in accomplishing the hundred and one other tasks of a modern police department depends upon the concentration of effort at the locations and during the hours they are most needed. Records provide data to assist in the development of police strategy, and they make possible vigorous follow-through procedures.

Measurements of Accomplishment. The success of programs launched to lower crime and accident rates may be ascertained by records analysis. Without measuring sticks to appraise police efficiency and accomplish-

ments, the police administrator cannot tell how effective his policies and procedures are, nor can he ascertain accurately the results of changes in methods of operation. Police administration is necessarily haphazard unless the accomplishments of the department and of its component units and individual members are similarly computed and studied.

Public Reporting. Keeping the public informed of police problems, policies, and procedures is also a vital administrative duty; the success of police programs is dependent on public support, which is more likely to be obtained when the purpose is understood. When the press is regularly supplied with accurate information, editorial-room crime waves are not so frequently manufactured and a more complete public understanding of police problems is made possible. Information for public dissemination is made readily available through a suitable records system.

Fiscal Affairs. Records supply information useful in preparing and supporting budget estimates, and they assist in managing the department's fiscal affairs. Expenditures are thus kept within the limits of appropriations and accurate payrolls compiled. The police program must compete with the programs of other departments for public funds, and it is most likely to receive adequate support when the proposed expenditures are shown in terms of effective policing and protection from criminals.

COMPLAINT, ARREST, AND IDENTIFICATION RECORDS

Provision of the above-described services and accomplishments necessitates certain minimum records; suitable procedures and a continuing inspection assure their correct use. Incidents that call for police action, arrests, the identification and control of persons and property, and the internal management of the department must be recorded.

A record of all incidents that result in police action makes available information of assistance in daily police operations, assures the dissemination of essential police information, and provides a control of police operations and personnel. Records of police incidents also supply raw data for compilation and analysis so that weaknesses and needs may be discovered, plans made, and accomplishments measured. The recording of the incident, therefore, may be considered a basic records task.

Incidents That Should Be Recorded. If police records are to fulfill the purposes that have been described, all occurrences in the following categories must be recorded:

1. Violations of Federal and state laws and city ordinances (except isolated traffic violations ordinarily handled by notices of violation) re-

ported by citizens or other agencies or discovered by the police in any other way. Exceptions are also made of city ordinance violations which are observed by the police (not reported to them) in which action consists only of a warning which is accepted without protest.

2. Calls on which officers are dispatched, except those that (a) are merely requests for information, (b) are handled by a special service report,² and (c) result from traffic violations not endangering life or property.

3. Warrants and subpoenas, and arrests not disposed of by citation.

4. Lost-and-found persons, animals, and property.

5. Reportable automobile accidents; reports of personal injuries, bodies found, suicide attempts, damage to public property, and mental cases.

6. Cases in which a police officer is involved in any way in the damage of public or private property or the injury of any person or animal.

7. Miscellaneous cases,³ general and special orders, violations of rules and regulations, and any other incident that a commanding officer desires to have recorded.

Classification of Incidents. The incidents listed above should be classified into logical groups so that their volume and character can be ascertained; in the absence of classification, police records would be virtually useless for administrative purposes, since it would be impossible to make meaningful tabulations of their contents.

The following five-part classification is recommended:

1. Parts I and II include the offenses so classified by the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

2. Part III includes all reports of lost-and-found persons, animals, and property.

3. Part IV incidents are casualties involving the sick, injured, and dead, and traffic accidents; included are all traffic accidents, suicides, bodies found, sick cared for, and mental cases.

4. Part V incidents are those miscellaneous cases that do not relate to an offense, a lost or found item, or a casualty. Included in this category are such administrative reports as special and general orders, and reports of violations of rules and regulations.

For a sample special service report, see Form 18, *ibid.*, p. 80.

"Miscellaneous Officers and Miscellaneous Public," *ibid.*, p. 266.

Ibid., p. 39 and Appendix A, which contains a detailed breakdown of incidents within each of these five groups.

Recording Daily Police Activities. Incidents in the above-described categories should be recorded on a complaint sheet,⁵ sometimes called a case sheet, which is a form with spaces for inserting pertinent information regarding the incident and the resulting police action. Two types of complaint sheets are required—a casualty sheet for recording Part IV incidents and another to be used in all other cases.

Each complaint sheet should be identified by a serial number, and all investigation reports and other forms and papers relating to the incident should bear the same number, inserted by the officer submitting them. This procedure aids in readily identifying them and facilitates their filing.

The numbering system should be centrally governed, and the central complaint room is the logical unit to exercise this control. When an operating unit records a complaint or an action initiated by its members, it may obtain a central complaint number (and thus effect registration of the incident) by telephone from the central complaint room. Only one number series for all incidents to be recorded (in contrast to a different number series for each of the several types of incidents, such as robberies, burglaries, missing persons, accidents, and so on) assures desirable simplicity.

It is desirable to have duplicate complaint sheets⁶ on cases assigned to the detective, vice, and juvenile divisions; only infrequently, however, do duplicates serve a useful purpose in cases assigned to the traffic division. When duplicates are thus made, investigation reports and related records should likewise be in duplicate. The originals are sent to the records office and the duplicates to the assigned division.

Immediate Preparation of the Complaint Sheet. The complaint sheet is filled in immediately upon receipt of information, except when instant action is desired; then officers are dispatched to the scene first.⁷ When the preparation is postponed until after investigation or until the dispatched officers report back to headquarters by telephone, some incidents

Sample case-sheet forms and a description of procedures employed in their preparation may be found, *ibid.*, pp. 41-57. The complaint sheet serves two purposes: (1) It is the foundation record of the case; because of the information recorded on it, the complaint sheet is useful as the front or number one item to which all investigation reports and other records relating to the case are attached. (2) The complaint sheet is helpful in administrative review and control; it assures that the incident is registered, assigned, and systematically dealt with, that pertinent information is disseminated among the personnel, and that the entire procedure is inspected and followed up.

Additional copies are needed in large departments.

The duties of dispatching officers and recording complaints are discussed in Chaps. 6 and 14.

are not recorded because they are considered of insufficient importance, and an incomplete account of police activities and a loss of administrative control over these incidents then result. A record is needed from the inception of the complaint to assure that all cases are correctly dealt with.

Dissemination of Information and Chronological Record. Policemen, to work effectively, must be: (1) notified of cases to which they are assigned and furnished with a brief résumé of essential facts, and (2) informed of crimes, other incidents calling for police action, persons wanted and arrested, property stolen, lost, and recovered, administrative orders, and other information. A third need is a chronological record of incidents calling for police action which assists in ascertaining the case number when information is so meager as to make an index search impractical. The chronological record also establishes the identity and general character of any case that may have become lost or misfiled.

In departments of fewer than 200 officers these three needs may be met by a typed bulletin, made out continuously as complaint sheets are prepared, in sufficient copies to furnish one to each division, the original being sent to the records office for permanent filing.⁸

In larger departments a printed or mimeographed bulletin becomes desirable when (1) the number of copies needed is more than can be struck off at a single typing; (2) the bulletin becomes too long for general reading and contains too much material of a general character of no interest to some special divisions; (3) the force becomes so large as to make it inconvenient for all members to have the limited number of typed copies read to them; (4) a substantial part of the personnel does not report at headquarters for roll call; (5) the force is decentralized among district stations.⁹

When a printed bulletin is used, a separate chronological record of cases should be made for records office reference purposes. Also under these circumstances provision must be made for positive notification to the officer of assignment to cases. This may be done by listing a résumé of cases and the officers assigned to each (1) on a separate typed sheet for each division and each district station or (2) by separate assignment slips to each officer assigned.

Reports by Investigating Officers. Officers should report in detail all action they take in handling cases to which they are assigned. Correctly

A teletypewriter in each division office and district station speeds up the dissemination of essential information. In departments without district stations a copy of the typed daily bulletin may be continuously furnished each division office in this manner.

District stations then need a more detailed district bulletin (see Chap. 18).

designed forms for such reports are convenient to use and assure a more complete report; the spaces serve as a guide in obtaining and recording information. Preliminary report forms should be filled out by officers who make preliminary investigations¹⁰ of crimes involving fraud, theft, or violence, except automobile and bicycle thefts on which special forms¹¹ should be filled out by the complaint clerk. Another special form should be furnished for recording information on persons wanted by the police.

Records Relating to Persons Arrested. Police responsibility by no means ends with the arrest of the criminal. Apprehension imposes additional duties, the performance of which is facilitated by records which relate specifically to the persons arrested. Records procedures aid in the control of the prisoner and his property and assure a check on his identity and his appearance in court.¹²

By registering information regarding the person arrested, the nature of the charge, and the circumstances of the arrest and release, arrest records answer such pertinent questions as who was arrested; when, where, and why he was arrested; which officer made the arrest; and how the arrest was made. Suitable arrest records provide for an entry on the daily bulletin so that all officers may know of the arrest; a notice to the court clerk regarding the charge and trial date; adequate control over the privileges of bail and communication with outside persons pending investigation; reinstatement of these privileges at the conclusion of the investigation, or when the need for restrictions has ended; knowledge of and information concerning persons in jail; a search of police records before release in order to ascertain whether the prisoner is wanted; and release only by authorized persons.

Records relating to the arrested person also accomplish other purposes. The prosecutor is supplied with information useful to him; the time actually served by convicted prisoners is established; in the event of injury to a prisoner, information regarding the circumstances, extent, and treatment is recorded; in some instances, records serve to notify the health department of suspected venereal infection; the prisoner's property is recorded and a receipt is given to him; control is exercised over cash fines and bail accepted by the police.

Before the prisoner is locked in jail or released on bond, information regarding the offender, the charge, and the circumstances of arrest is recorded either in a book or on an individual arrest card for each pris-

For a definition of preliminary investigation, see Chap. 7. Sample forms and discussion of preliminary reports may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 62-64.

Ibid., Forms 6 and 7, pp. 49-50.

Ibid., pp. 89-123.

oner.¹³ In either event, each person arrested is assigned a number, known as the arrest number, for purposes of audit and control. This number series is usually started anew on the first of each year and is preceded by the last two digits of the current year. The last arrest number of the year, therefore, is the total number of arrests made in that year.

Personal Identification Records. Fingerprint records are the heart of the identification system. While the fingerprint record assures positive identification, it should be supplemented by a record of physical characteristics and, in some cases, a photograph to permit visual identification. The following identification records, therefore, are needed: (1) description cards,¹⁴ (2) single fingerprint cards on selected prisoners, (3) photographs of some criminals, and (4) criminal histories.

Identification records also have their own number series; an identification number is assigned to each prisoner to identify records relating to him. The same number should be used for each subject, regardless of the number of times he may be arrested or fingerprinted. The identification number should appear on the fingerprint card, the description sheet, the criminal history sheet, and the photograph.¹⁵

Fingerprints are recorded chronologically in a bound book with entries to include the name, identification number, case number, fingerprint classification, and date.

A policy regarding prisoners to be fingerprinted should be established by department regulation in order to avoid error through misunderstanding. The increasing recognition of the desirability of civilian fingerprinting and the extension of this practice have decreased opposition to fingerprinting prisoners, and in recent years there has been a tendency to increase the classes of offenders fingerprinted. Some departments fingerprint every person lodged in jail, although most of them exempt traffic offenders and the violators of less important city ordinances. State law sometimes specify which prisoners shall be fingerprinted. All prints permitted by law should be taken.

The individual arrest card (*ibid.*, Forms 22 and 23, pp. 90 and 93) has a number of advantages over the arrest book or blotter: (1) It may be typed and is thus more legible; (2) additional copies may be made to facilitate control and to provide information to the court clerk for the preparation of his docket and to the records office on the disposition of the case; (3) maximum flexibility is obtained: the arrest card may be sent to the records office for a check to ascertain if the subject is wanted; it may be filed in a jail file as long as the subject is in custody, and thus serve as a jail register; following release from jail, the record of arrest may be placed in a pending file in the records office until the end of the month when it may be used for tabulating information for the monthly report.

Ibid., Form 34, p. 127.

The identification number should show whether a photograph was taken, by the addition of the letter M.

PROCEDURES WITHIN THE RECORDS DIVISION

Police records must be arranged, filed, and indexed if they are to be conveniently available for routine use and for the analysis and follow-up so essential to the effective control of police operations.¹⁶ The tasks involved in preparing records must be assigned to the various clerks so that each job will be done at the proper time and in the manner prescribed. For example, one clerk may classify, search, and file fingerprint cards, and another may index them. The disposition sheet may pass through the hands of a number of clerks, each of whom performs some small operation. Each case is inspected by the follow-up officer, items are attached to it by the "hookup" clerk, another may index the names and the property stolen, and still another may file the case. In small departments one clerk may perform many different tasks, while in a large one a group of clerks may work at the same task.

Records Operations. Records operations are complex and require painstaking efforts. Newly obtained information must be added: property may be recovered or additional property may be reported stolen; additional information may necessitate changing the classification; decisions must also be made and recorded in reference to clearance of cases by arrest. There is danger that a clerk may fail in the performance of some detail that appears to be trivial and unimportant but is really significant, and that the failure will not be discovered until a summary is made at the end of the month. Routine safeguards and periodic checks are needed to assure the accomplishment of these varied duties.¹⁷

Indexing the Case Reports. Index cards may be prepared from the case record to which are attached all related records, including a copy of the arrest record, the description sheet bearing the fingerprint classification, and property record cards. Index cards must also be made of cor-

The safe and convenient storage of old cases presents a space problem in many departments that is met in part by destroying case records over fifteen years old after they have been microfilmed.

One of the simplest safeguards in the conduct of records work is to outline the tasks in detail on cards which may be arranged conveniently by identifying numbers and letters in a records operations file. Sample Records Operations from one department is reproduced in *Police Records*, Appendix C, pp. 272-287. This system facilitates and assures the accomplishment of all records operations: It simplifies the assignment of the various tasks and places responsibility for the performance of each; it ensures that each duty, regardless of how apparently insignificant, is assigned to someone; it permits each clerk to review his assignment and to refer to the outlined procedure in case of doubt; and it facilitates a regular and complete inspection of all operations by the division head.

respondence not relating to a case, teletype and radio messages, and outside (nonlocal) fingerprint cards and circulars.

General Alphabetical Index. A general index with the cards arranged in strictly alphabetical order should be maintained for the purpose of ascertaining the case number, the fingerprint classification, or the previous record of any person who has been the subject of police inquiry or action.¹⁸ A single alphabetical index, rather than a separate one for each class of records (*i.e.*, complaint, arrest, identification, and correspondence) has the following advantages: (1) Search is simplified, and errors in filing are lessened, since there is only one index. (2) Only one index card is required for each person in each case, since all pertinent information can be included on it, in contrast to the number required if separate indexes are maintained, thus effecting a saving in man power, supplies, and equipment.^{18a}

Driver Index. A driver index contains the names of persons who have been involved in automobile accidents or who have been arrested or served with citations, notices of violation, or warning tickets for moving violations. A driver index is justified when the volume of accident cases and traffic tickets makes burdensome the search of a large general index for the driving history of the offender. Also, it may be conveniently located at some point removed from the main records office for operation by a clerk who performs duties that require his attendance but do not occupy his full time.

Other Indexes. Index cards should also be prepared for the following files.¹⁹

Classification index

Accident-location index

Auto-theft index

Stolen-property index

Number index

Inscription index

Questionable-character index (useful but not essential)

There has not been sufficient experience with phonetic filing of index cards in police service to demonstrate the superiority of this system.

Pertinent information is obtained from the investigation reports, the copy of the arrest card, and the description sheet. Should the case be indexed before either of the latter forms is filed, the incomplete index card may be held in a pending file until they are received. The practice of searching for an index card filed on a previous case in order to add thereon information relating to a current case is an ill-advised, time-wasting procedure.

Ibid., pp. 187-193.

Filing Index Cards and Other Records. Great care is needed in filing index cards and other records, since misfiling makes them difficult to find. Each item misfiled serves as a seed which grows as other items are inadvertently filed beside it. There is only one correct place to file each item; it belongs between two particular cards or records in the drawer, and when it is not between these two, it is misfiled.²⁰

Color of Index Cards and Other Forms. Index cards and other forms should be of white stock, except when color accomplishes some specific purpose. Index cards of distinctive color on persons wanted and persons with licenses subject to revocation assist search and quick identification. When forms intended for a certain unit or office are of a distinctive color, segregation and routing is simplified and the chance of error is diminished. Color may also be used to indicate degree of urgency.

Follow-up Control. A regular and orderly system to follow-up on complaints, arrests, and other police matters and to control the work of individual officers is essential. A police department that relies solely upon the individual officers to follow through on cases to which they are assigned cannot give satisfactory service. A system is needed to supervise and control all police matters that require action to assure that all available information at the command of the department is brought to bear on each case, and to determine that the service rendered is effective and of a high quality. A system of follow-up expedites the day-to-day business, catches the stray threads at proper intervals, causes action to be instituted at a stated time in the future, and generally aids in keeping the staff alert.

The reading and inspection of cases and reports is a tedious, time-consuming clerical duty. If the patrol sergeant personally reviewed all the cases being investigated by his subordinates, a substantial part of his time would be devoted to this activity, and other important supervisory tasks would be neglected. Follow-up can be performed most economically and satisfactorily by one or more officers who devote full time to these tasks. The follow-up officer serves as the central analyst of all reports submitted by the force, he calls the attention of the appropriate officers to errors, omissions, and needed actions, and he stands as a guardian over department policy and procedure.

Because of the importance of maintaining indexes in good order, department regulations should prohibit the removal of cards from the index and require the fixing of responsibility for filing by the designation of one clerk to file the cards in each index and the prohibition of anyone else doing so. Once each year a clerk should be assigned to go through the index files, card by card, to discover and correct errors.

Relationship of Follow-up Officer to Other Officers. Follow-up involves referring to higher authority instances of improper disposition of cases and other irregularities (see Chap. 4). Such action frequently creates ill will, because some superior officers resent having their judgment questioned and are offended when a matter is referred to a superior over their heads.

A clear understanding by superior officers that follow-up duties are of a secretarial and service nature and that the follow-up officer is not attempting to dictate their policies or direct their men will do much to eliminate ill will. It is not considered insubordination for a secretary to call the employer's attention to correspondence that must be answered, appointments that must be met, and conferences that must be attended, nor does this action carry with it a command. The follow-up officer is in a comparable position. Although he may suggest the advisability of certain procedures by questions, the decision regarding what is to be done is left to the superior; the follow-up officer has no direct authority over the members of the department. To give him such control would be a violation of the principle of unity of command.²¹

Theoretically, if an officer fails to prepare a report on an investigation, his commanding officer should be notified, and he in turn should take the appropriate measures to secure the report. Practically, this line of command must be cut across in the case of such routine matters, or the commanding officers will spend time in keeping the records system going that should be devoted to directing their subordinates in police duties that comprise the real work of the department.

The commanding officers, obviously, want the records work done properly, since they themselves depend upon the reports and upon the many services of the records office for doing their own jobs well. When the records division suggests to a sergeant that he should have one of his officers submit a correct report, there is no conflict with the commanding officer. The latter has merely delegated authority to the records unit to initiate certain actions for him. However, if disagreement with the sergeant develops, or if he is persistently negligent, or if a new policy or procedure is being initiated, the records unit must deal through the commanding officer, or in case of disagreement with him, with the head of the department.

Police Records, pp. 194-201, discusses the follow-up procedure in detail, explains the desirability of concealing from subordinates the fact that action was suggested by the follow-up officer, and shows an impersonal check list (Form 48) designed to lessen the likelihood of friction between the follow-up officer and others by eliminating the use of the more personal note.

General Duties of the Follow-up Officer. On the shoulders of the follow-up officer rests the responsibility of inspecting reports and scrutinizing recorded actions for the purpose of detecting failures and irregularities. He must understand in detail the interrelationships in the operations of all organization units and the relationship of police functions to those of other municipal, county, state, Federal, and some nongovernmental agencies. He is the department diagnostician sitting with his fingers on the pulse of activity, anxiously watching to be certain that no beat is missed. He needs to know the details of the department's business; what should be done and what should not be done; how an investigation should be conducted and when it is completed; and what is expected from officers in all positions. Obviously, an ordinary clerk is not qualified to perform these tasks.

Specifically, the follow-up officer has the responsibility of inspecting each case to ascertain:

1. That the complaint sheet is correctly prepared and classified with information complete and officers correctly assigned.
2. That reporting regulations have been followed and, in particular, that investigation reports are submitted promptly, are correctly and completely prepared, containing answers to the questions of who, where, when, what, why, and how, and the names, descriptions, and addresses of persons correctly and completely recorded.
3. That correct and complete investigations have been made or action taken, with particular attention to (a) the questioning of neighbors and the interviewing of witnesses; (b) the use in crime investigation of all facilities in the department and available in the community, state, or nation; (c) the complete investigation of each clue; (d) the notification to other agencies when this procedure is advisable; (e) the sending, if necessary, of letters reporting parole violations and convictions which may result in the revocation of drivers' and other licenses; (f) the explanation to the complainant of the action taken by the department and the results.
4. That records-division operations are accomplished, with specific reference to (a) the correct hookup of items, with care in each case that needed special operations are performed; (b) the accurate indexing of cases; (c) the prompt answering of correspondence attached to the case; (d) the receipt of answers to letters of inquiry; (e) the disposition of property.

As an example, the implications and consequences of police failure to report immediately to the owner the recovery of property that he has reported lost or stolen (especially in the case of property such as automobiles, which the public

SUMMARIES

Facts contained in basic police records must be extracted and compiled so that accomplishments may be appraised and comparisons made. Such analyses may reveal weaknesses and needs and assist in the development of plans and the direction of effort toward the attainment of police objectives.

The use of punch-card tabulating equipment provides flexibility, speed, and accuracy in the compilation of data for monthly reports, for other summaries, and for the statistical studies so frequently requested by progressive police executives and by outside agencies. Tabulating equipment is essential for the compilation of statistical summaries in departments of more than 150 men, and while desirable in smaller ones, this equipment is not essential, since all data may be tabulated by clerks either by continuous daily entries on master sheets or by reference to the original records and indexes at the time of compilation. Master sheets are not recommended except for very small departments because they present unusual opportunity for errors that are difficult to locate without starting a new sheet, and their accuracy is difficult to check.

The Daily Summary. The commanding officers of the department need current information on major crimes, accidents, and arrests, and on officers not available for duty. This information should be tabulated in convenient form as a daily summary with columns to carry statistics for the current day and the current and previous months to date.²³ The summary should be prepared daily as of 6:00 A.M., and copies should be placed on the desks of the chief and the heads of divisions before they report for duty.

The Monthly Report. Significant data should be compiled monthly and presented to the administrative head of the city as well as to top police officials. They should be in a form convenient for analysis and comparison so as to reveal crime trends and the effectiveness of police units, procedures, and policies. The monthly report should include statistical summaries of complaints and other cases, arrests, traffic accidents and enforcement, juvenile offenses and police activities related thereto, laboratory accomplishments, identification records activities, personnel

might consider likely that the police would convert to their own use) justify the special precaution of a double check consisting of a search of the stolen-property files against all property reported found, and also indexing on distinctively colored cards (see Operations VIII and IX, *ibid.*, pp. 277-278). The follow-up officer has the task of ensuring the accomplishment of these operations.

Ibid., p. 206, Forms 49 and 50.

matters, and maintenance costs and other expenditures. Tabulations should be carried in columns for the current month and the current and previous years to date.²⁴

The Annual Report. The annual report usually consists of a summary of the monthly reports, and consequently most of the annual-report tables correspond to those of the monthly report, differing only in column arrangements and headings. Data considered not valuable enough to compile monthly usually are not compiled on an annual basis. One of the purposes of the annual report is to provide comparisons with the year just passed and previous years. The data for 5-year comparisons can be presented satisfactorily when the annual report is printed. Limitations of space or the desire for greater simplicity, however, may limit the data to 3 years. Data for the current year and the year immediately preceding are invariably shown. The third column may be devoted to either the third or the fifth year.²⁵

Spot Maps. Spot maps are useful to indicate the locations of police hazards and to furnish supervising officers with evidence of weaknesses in police service. The location of crime and accident hazards on maps aids in the direction of enforcement efforts and shows the individual officer where his attention is most badly needed. Surveys of traffic hazards, supplemented by spot maps, frequently reveal highway accident-inducing factors that may be eliminated by regulation or by change in roadway design.

Spot maps should be placed where they will be readily available for consultation. They will be seldom used if kept in an inconveniently located office. The selection of the most desirable location is influenced by office arrangement and the purpose of the map. When the map is intended primarily for the guidance of officers on the street, it should be in the squad room. When its primary purpose is administrative, it should be in the office where it will be used.

A limited number of maps should be displayed, and they should be restricted to matters of immediate interest, if they are to receive attention. Some police executives, of the opinion that the constant presence of spot maps dulls the interest of officers, use a single map on which are posted the crimes or other incidents of greatest current interest.

Each map should be limited to not over three different factors, if these factors have about equal frequency, because the inclusion of a greater number makes interpretation difficult. One or two additional ones may be included, however, if their occurrence is fairly infrequent as in the case of fatal accidents or such crimes as murder, rape, or robbery.

All spot maps should be photographed or reproduced in ink on a small map, before being cleared. Pins or spots should be of distinctive shapes or designs, since colors do not photograph satisfactorily.

Spot maps should be kept up to date by the records staff rather than by the member of operating divisions, although division secretaries may perform this duty.

Charts of Accomplishment. Graphs showing accomplishments of the department as a whole, of the various divisions, and of individual officers are valuable in stimulating interest in the job, in developing competition, and in directing attention to operations in which the department appears to be weak. A competitive spirit is not limited to competition between individuals; an officer, a unit, or the entire department may attempt to improve a previous record.

Monthly totals and data for the current and previous years to date may be recorded by simple line graphs or bar charts, or by thermometers or dials. If placed in a location where they may be reviewed by the public, these charts are useful in public reporting.²⁶ Those which show the record of individuals, however, should not be on public display, although they may be posted at headquarters where they may be reviewed by the persons concerned.

A detective-division chart may portray, month by month for each crime classification, the percentage of cases cleared by arrest, the percentage convicted, and the percentage recovery of stolen property. The percentage for each of the preceding 5 years may also be shown for purposes of comparison. The accomplishment of the detective assigned to each class of crime is thus provided for the stimulation of the officer and the guidance of his supervisors.

Charts that show comparisons between months of the current and previous year and between previous yearly totals may be advantageously used for tabulating a variety of data: Part I crimes classified according to type; fatal, personal-injury, and property-damage motor-vehicle accidents; citations and notices of violation; arrest or enforcement indexes; and so on.

Sheets on which are tabulated for each officer the number of arrests classified according to offense and the number of accidents occurring on his beat during his tour of duty are sometimes used. If desired, the chart may show a traffic-arrest index for each officer.

Standards of Performance. Police executives should establish standards against which the performance of their departments or units may

be compared. Standards can be set whenever figures that give an arithmetical indication of accomplishment are available from comparable cities for purposes of comparison. Accident rates, crime rates, percentage of crimes cleared by arrest, and percentage of stolen property recovered are examples of arithmetical measures of accomplishment.

Two standards are needed. The first should serve as a warning that the performance of the department is not satisfactory and that steps must be taken to improve it. The warning standard should be the average for all departments in cities of the same population group and geographical region or nation. The second standard is the desired level of achievement. It is the goal that is set for the department or unit; when it is attained, superior performance is indicated.

The desired level of achievement must be within the probable ability of the department or unit. It will not be the same, therefore, for all departments in the same population group, because the current accomplishment of some may be so poor as to make it obviously impossible for them to attain at once the level of performance of departments with superior records of accomplishment.

Edward V. Comber, Jr., of the San Francisco Police Department, has developed a formula for establishing the desired level of achievement in any field of accomplishment. The formula is based on the standard deviation from the arithmetical average of the achievement (the rates) of departments forming a comparable group, such as those in the same population group and region. The standard deviation is the square root of the quotient of the sum of the squares of the individual deviations from the arithmetical average of all items in the series divided by the number in the series.

The desired level of achievement in those activities where a lower rate indicates a higher achievement (as in crime and accident rates) equals $r(1 - \sigma/x)$ where r is the current rate for the department, σ the standard deviation, and x the arithmetical average of the rates for all departments in the series.

The desired level of achievement in those activities where a higher rate indicates a greater achievement expressed in percentage (as in clearances by arrest) equals $100 - (100 - r)(1 - \sigma/x)$.²⁷

Chapter 14

ORGANIZATION FOR RECORDS AND COMMUNICATIONS

The extent to which the records system facilitates police management in the previously described manner depends in large measure upon how it is organized and administered. The system must be developed into a carefully planned, centralized activity designed to meet the operating needs of the department, and it must be placed in the hands of a competent staff and not left to the whims of the individual divisions.

THE RECORDS DIVISION

The records office is the information center of the department that fits together all police records work to form an integrated system. Complaint reports, arrest records, identification facilities, property controls, and communications are all interrelated, and their most effective use is obtained only through their integration into a single, coordinated system.

A suitable system administered by a competent records officer assures the needed coordination and offers many other advantages. Records activities are then concentrated in the hands of a smaller number of individuals who can develop skill in performance; this concentration also permits greater specialization in work with consequent increase in efficiency. Training, supervision, and control, and the placing of responsibility are then simplified; inaccuracies resulting from lack of skill, deliberate efforts to distort, or an unconscious desire to make favorable returns are diminished. The various records that relate to a particular case, place, person, or problem are centralized in one place, and information obtained by one officer can become the common knowledge of all when records are suitably integrated. Success in dealing with the various phases of complicated criminal cases often depends upon the coordination of all records operations in a single records unit. Needless delay is avoided in searching for records, and a quicker response is possible to any call for information. And finally, a more consistently uniform classification of offenses and other data is assured.

A well-administered central records system contributes to the effective operation and management of the police department. A centralized system supplies the data for administrative control; it aids in the judicious

distribution of manpower and police effort; it enables a more reliable evaluation of the efficiency and economy of operations; it makes readily available information for both short- and long-term planning; it provides a prudent control over the assets of the department; it places the responsibility for the effectiveness of records work in a single division head, and the chief then has but one person to contact for records information and reports. In addition, the records division assists in the control of the activities of individual officers and units through a system of follow-up that ensures that no incident or condition that has been called to the attention of the department is dropped until it has been properly concluded.

Evils of Decentralization. Detective, traffic, and other divisions frequently wish to maintain their own records, arguing that since they are the units that use the information they must control its recording. There is no justification in this claim, and the urge, if unchecked, leads to complete decentralization. It may even result in a series of individual, uncoordinated records systems within a single operating division, as when auto-theft, homicide, and robbery bureaus in large departments establish and operate their own records systems independently and without coordination. In more recent years, the same tendency has been apparent in the establishment of separate records for the traffic and juvenile divisions. Such decentralization makes effective control and management of the department more difficult and weaknesses of individuals and units not so easily detected. Also, the various activities of the department are not then so completely integrated into a well-rounded police program.

Perhaps the most serious result of the decentralization of records, however, is the lack of assurance that an honest accounting of police work is being made. When the patrol force keeps its own records, it may be tempted not to record some complaints because a low crime rate reflects to its credit. Detective divisions have falsely improved their standing by failing to keep records of offenses that are not likely to be solved. Such practices have been common in many police departments, and police administrators have been embarrassed when this laxity has been discovered. Integrity in the maintenance of the records system, combined with frank reporting to the public, has always proved to be the best policy in police administration.

Records Work in the Operating Divisions. It is true that operating divisions have sometimes been forced to establish their own records because the department has failed to organize a single, coordinated system or to establish a competent records division. Also, some records officials have been guilty of forgetting that the sole function of the records

division is to provide service to the rest of the department. Failures of certain departments in these respects do not constitute valid arguments, however, against the desirability of a central records system.

The compelling need for concentrating records responsibilities in a central records division does not mean, however, that it performs all of the records work. The operating divisions must help to keep the system functioning smoothly, and some current work records must be maintained in the offices of these divisions, although their control is centralized. For example, a copy of the daily bulletin for each branch of the service furnishes complete and up-to-the-minute information on departmental activities. Descriptions of stolen automobiles and bicycles and of persons wanted must be made available for inspection by all members of the department. Copies of complaint sheets and reports facilitate investigations by the special divisions, and spot maps, summaries, and charts of accomplishment are useful in all fields of police activities. Each division must use attendance records and other control devices, and in addition some require certain records for their own special use that are auxiliary to the records maintained by the central records division, such as the case histories maintained by the juvenile division. Divisions also keep certain records that are only slightly related, if at all, to the central records. These include engineering, maintenance, personnel, and accounting records, and records relating to such special activities as junior traffic patrols and public relations. Because of the need for secrecy, vice-division records may be located temporarily in an independent system. Vice complaints and reports must be registered, however, to assure suitable control.¹

Records-division Duties. From the discussion up to this point, it can readily be seen that the records division should be a central service agency, whose head reports directly to the chief or to his assistant. The records division has no primary police functions but only provides auxiliary services to facilitate the work of the operating divisions and to assist the chief in his job of management. The modern records division performs the work that in the past has been performed by the bureau of identification, the desk sergeant, the booking officer, the communications unit, the property clerk's office, and sometimes the accounting office.

Experience has demonstrated that certain responsibilities are generally appropriate for the records division. Complaint, arrest, identification, and property-control records must be kept completely and accurately; they must be inspected, followed up, classified, indexed, and filed; they must be used in identifying persons and property and in providing super-

vision over investigating officers; the information they contain must be tabulated, summarized, analyzed, and compared in order to measure accomplishments, detect weaknesses, and plan operations. These clearly should be records-division duties.

To assure an honest accounting of police work, it is desirable that the central complaint desk be made a part of the records layout. Related thereto are the dispatching of officers in field operations and the accomplishment of other communications tasks. Complaint and communications duties in departments having no district stations are discussed in a later section of this chapter. Records and communications problems in departments having district stations are discussed in the Chap. 18.

The local situation influences the assignment of some activities to the records division. For example, the existence of central municipal personnel, purchasing, and finance agencies, and the adequacy of the records maintained by them, will influence the establishment of police records relating to matters handled by these offices. The police department will find it unnecessary to maintain an accounting system if the finance director is able to furnish promptly all needed information regarding police accounts. A central municipal inventory of equipment may make unnecessary a duplicate file on police equipment. Some personnel records may likewise be unnecessary if complete records are kept by the municipal personnel bureau; on the other hand, the police personnel director may desire to maintain a number of personnel records in his own office.

The records division is usually the unit best suited to handle such activities as the booking of prisoners, the maintenance of criminal identification records, the custody and control of property, and the reproduction of records forms, police reports, and publications. In addition, the records division is responsible for a staff supervision of the performance of records tasks and related operations by the members of other divisions.

Criminal Identification Work. The reasons for including criminal identification facilities in the records division are compelling. The trend has long been in that direction, although many police departments still place the identification unit in the detective division or maintain it as a completely independent unit. The maintenance of criminal identification records forms an integral part of the total records job. Fingerprints, photographs, and physical descriptions of known criminals and descriptions of their methods of operation, and the descriptions of unknown perpetrators and their methods should be centrally maintained in the records division. Information regarding the known and the unknown must be brought together if identifications are to be made and crimes solved. The interrelationship between the criminal and the crime he

has committed is so close as to leave no doubt that identification records are a component part of the police records system.

Property Control. In addition to being responsible for keeping property-control records,² the records division is the logical unit to be assigned the custody of property. This office supplies 24-hour service and consequently is always available for the receipt and disbursement of property, and its quarters usually do, and always should, have suitable storage facilities.³ For these reasons the custody of property should be charged to the records division, except in the largest departments where justification may be found for a property division separate from the records division. Such separation of duties provides a safeguard by placing the custody of property in a division that does not have possession of the control records.

The records-division head should designate one of his staff as property clerk. Property-control duties vary with the size of the department, and consequently in small ones the designated person may perform his property duties in addition to records tasks, whereas in a large department he may need one or more assistants to operate a property section.

Property in charge of the records division is only temporarily in police custody; it consists of found property, evidence, and sometimes property temporarily stored with the police for safekeeping. Not all evidence, however, is delivered into the possession of the records or property division: (1) the vice division may establish within its own quarters facilities for the safe storing of contraband and evidence (see Chap. 10) and (2) the laboratory may retain physical evidence sent to it for examination, pending court disposition.

Department-owned property also presents problems of safekeeping, disbursement, and control.⁴ Because of the similarity of duties, it is logical to assign responsibility for the custody of department property, as well as of property temporarily in police custody, to the records division and to the same property clerk.⁵

A description of property-control records and procedures may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 68-75.

The storage of automobiles temporarily in police possession presents a special problem that is met in most cities by contracts with private garages for tow and storage service. The contracts are usually made on the basis of sealed bids. The number and location of storage garages are influenced by the size and population distribution of the community.

A description of records and procedures for a control over department property may be found in *Ibid.*, pp. 164-165.

Since the property clerk will not work more than one shift, it is necessary to assign some of his duties to records-division members available during his off-duty

As part of his custodial duties, the property clerk should maintain indexes to facilitate locating particular items of property and to serve as inventories of property released and of property still in his possession.⁶ He should also arrange for disposing of unclaimed articles in accordance with local regulation and state law.⁷

The Police Printing Shop. The large number of forms used by the police and the growing use of police publications make department printing facilities desirable. The convenience of having such services immediately available is an important factor. In small cities a municipal printing shop may prepare forms used in all city departments as well as publications and reports. In large cities, and also in smaller ones that do not have these facilities, the police are justified in maintaining their own printing shop. The equipment need not be the most expensive; lithoprinting is used by some, and even small departments should have mimeograph or other reproducing equipment.

The requests for this service originate principally in the records division with its continuing need for records forms and for reproducing periodic and special reports. Other lesser needs originate in the other divisions. The source of the demand and the nature of this service indicate that reproduction should be the responsibility of the records division, whether limited to mimeographing or involving the use of an up-to-date printing plant.

Organization of the Records Division in Departments of Various Sizes. The size of the police department is the most important factor that influences organization of the records division. In small departments, usually those with fewer than 20 men, the records duties are all performed by the desk officers. In a very small department, where these tasks can be accomplished by one desk officer working on only one shift, a formal records division need not be organized. However, if the work of the department requires a desk officer on two or more tours of duty, the

hours. Because of the importance of establishing the chain of possession of evidence, he will not divide this custodial responsibility, but will retain actual custody of evidence himself, except during his annual leave and other periods of protracted absence from duty. Keys to the storeroom of other property, however, should be turned over to designated officers during his off-duty hours in order to avoid unnecessary delay and inconvenience in the release of property to its rightful owner, or in the case of department property, to officers who may require its use. Certain expensive items of police equipment which are unlikely to be needed in off-shift hours, such as sidearms when they are department-owned, may be retained in the sole custody of the property clerk.

Sample forms and procedures designed to simplify and strengthen property control are found in *Police Records*, pp. 68-75.

Regulations should forbid the purchase by policemen of articles at police auction.

work must be planned and directed; procedures must be outlined and responsibilities assigned. In a department of this size, a head of the division is usually needed to deal with these administrative problems.

In the small department the officer supervising desk operations will work on the day tour and provide a staff supervision of the records work on the other shifts. The desk officer in departments of this size also books prisoners and serves as jailer, complaint officer, and dispatcher.

As the department increases in size, routine desk duties and records tasks increase to such an extent that the desk officer is not able to handle them alone. He may first obtain a part-time assistant; perhaps a patrolman who does the fingerprint work, or the follow-up operation may be handled by a superior officer devoting an hour or two each day to the task.

In still larger departments one or more persons, assisted by the desk officer, may devote a full tour of duty exclusively to records tasks. The supervision of records functions then passes from the daytime desk officer to the full-time officer who directs all records and communications activities in his capacity as the head of the records division. Usually the first full-time man to be appointed to records work will be an identification officer who may devote an hour or more of his time to identification records and the remainder to complaint and arrest records. A department of 20 men or more usually warrants this scheme of organization.

COMPLAINTS AND COMMUNICATIONS IN DEPARTMENTS HAVING NO DISTRICT STATIONS^s

The propriety of including communications tasks under the control of the records division is sometimes questioned because the intimate relationship of these activities to other records work is not always clearly understood. Most police records originate with reports transmitted by some form of communication facility, and information to be added to the records is received from time to time in a like manner. Scarcely a police action is taken that does not involve some form of communication. Nearly all requests for police service are made by telephone, police officers on street duty frequently report to headquarters by telephone, and radio communication is maintained between headquarters and officers in the field. The facts contained in these messages and resultant action should be immediately recorded.

The records division should be responsible for the operation of the police telephone switchboard, the call-box system, teletype, and radio.

Communications officers⁹ should be attached to the records division because they link the reporting system to the record system. The control of communications by the records division instead of by an operating unit is essential to accurate crime accounting and is logical because communications is a service supplied to all the other divisions. Since the central complaint desk or office where the dispatchers are located should be an integral part of the records division layout and since other communications personnel are usually stationed nearby, the supervision of these officers by the head of the records division is both natural and easy.¹⁰

Desk Duties. In small departments, complaint and communication tasks are assigned to desk officers who have five primary desk duties: (1) Operating the telephone switchboard, including the transfer of calls to other police offices, and the receipt and recording of routine calls from officers on the street either through call boxes or the regular telephone system, (2) receiving complaints by telephone or at the desk or counter and recording them on complaint sheets and a daily bulletin (see Chap. 13), (3) dispatching officers by radio or telephone with attendant duties of maintaining a radio log and some device for showing the availability of officers for radio service (see Chaps. 17 and 18), (4) booking and searching prisoners and recording and storing their personal property, and (5) furnishing information to the public by telephone or at the desk or counter. Since the most important task is the handling of complaints, the desk or counter is usually called a complaint desk.

Services provided at the complaint desk vary with the size of the department. In small ones it will be manned by the traditional desk sergeant, who is a combined switchboard operator, complaint clerk, dispatcher, booking officer, and information clerk. The most desirable arrangement places the complaint desk contiguous to or in the records office, and in a position accessible to the public, so that the complaint clerk may receive complaints and supply information to citizens who call in person.

The concentration of these tasks in the manner described has three important advantages: (1) Operations are kept at top speed by eliminating the lag that results when needs for police service are transferred by a switchboard operator to a complaint clerk who relays them orally, by written communication, or by signaling the dispatcher to monitor the conversation. (2) Maximum economy of man power is possible when

tasks are physically concentrated in a small area so that several or all may be combined and assigned to one person during periods of light load. Nearby records clerks may assist during unexpectedly heavy peaks, and the desk officers may likewise perform some records tasks during slack periods. (3) Personal contact with records clerks facilitates obtaining essential records information.

While a single telephone may be adequate in a very small department, in larger ones it is replaced by a multiple-key switchboard, and later by a multiple-cord board, with attendant increase in time spent in transferring calls to other police offices. In larger departments other desk duties also increase in frequency to a degree that one officer cannot handle them. Assistance must then be provided in the form of part-time help from a records clerk, when the desk is contiguous to the records office. When the jail is conveniently near, an officer who serves primarily as an information clerk and clerical assistant to the desk officer may also perform jail duties, taking custody of prisoners brought to headquarters and searching them during the booking process.

Separation of Desk Duties. As the volume of work increases in larger forces, a point is reached where prompt and effective service necessitates division of these several activities, and assigning some of them to officers in other parts of the building. In larger departments their concentration at one point with the facilities and personnel needed would require an inordinate amount of floor space. As a result it is then no longer possible for the information desk, the records office, the jail entrance, and the communications facilities to all be located together.

Consideration should be given to relationships between the several duties, when conditions require their separation, so that those least closely related may be assigned locations isolated from the others with least disadvantage. Effort should be made to retain together as long as possible those duties most closely related.¹¹ For example, the handling of complaints and communications are closely related, and the performance of these two tasks should be located together, or nearby, in order to lessen the lag between the receipt of the call and the dispatch of officers. However, the telephone switchboard operation may be separated from the receipt and recording of complaint information and the dispatching of officers, and one or more of these duties may be removed from the desk and isolated from the public. Frequently the arrangement of space necessitates the booking of prisoners at a point removed from the desk when the load is yet comparatively light.

When furnishing information to the public is the primary task remaining at the desk, it is called the information counter. The information counter is a subdivision of the records division, and when it is physically a part of the records office, information may be furnished by a records clerk. Although some complaints may be received here from citizens who call in person, they are merely forwarded to the complaint desk as though they had been received by an officer on the street.¹²

The Complaint Clerk and Dispatcher. The central point at which complaints are recorded is called the complaint desk. It may be in a position accessible to the public, or it may be removed. When the complaint and communications tasks are separated from the information desk and the booking counter, they may continue to be performed by the dispatcher. His room is usually called the dispatcher's office, although it may also be called the complaint room. The work load, however, may necessitate further separation of these tasks. The manner of handling the several interrelated tasks that begin with a telephone call and end with the dispatch of officers to the scene of the complaint will influence the organization pattern as well as space and equipment requirements. Emphasis has been given to the close relationship of these tasks and the desirability of their integration into an operation that can be carried out at one point by one or two men, or at several separate but closely adjacent points, when personnel crowding necessitates. In summary, these tasks may be listed as follows: (1) Receipt of all telephone and call-box calls and the transfer, to the complaint desk or dispatcher, of those that relate to incidents to be recorded and, in particular, those that necessitate a radio broadcast; (2) receipt of essential complaint information; (3) transfer of this information to the dispatcher and, when necessary, to other police offices such as the detective division; (4) broadcast of the information; (5) receipt of radio communications from the street; (6) posting changes in the availability of officers for assignment on a dispatcher's map or board; (7) recording complaints and broadcasts on complaint sheets, daily bulletin, and radio log.

In large departments the dispatcher must be relieved of some of these tasks in order that he may have adequate time for his primary duty of obtaining and broadcasting essential information. The tasks which he should be relieved of include the following, listed in order:

1. The first duty to be assigned to another person is the operation of the switchboard. The dispatcher is thus relieved of incoming and outgoing telephone calls for headquarters' offices, as well as calls for informa-

¹² A suitable form for this purpose is found in *Police Records*, p. 47, Form 5.

tion and routine calls from officers on street duty. He would receive calls on incidents that require recording (see Chap. 13).

The switchboard may be left in the presence of the dispatcher or it may be moved to an adjacent office, although it would be less desirable to have it in some distant location. When the switchboard is suitably situated in reference to the dispatching equipment or when a radio microphone and controls are installed at the switchboard location, the dispatcher may operate both the radio equipment and the switchboard during hours of light load, such as on the graveyard shift. Except in departments where the load is too great, the switchboard operator may also handle call-box operations and perform suitable clerical tasks, especially during the night hours.

2. Complaint sheets and the bulletin may be prepared by a clerk on the basis of penciled memos containing information obtained directly from complainants by the dispatcher.¹³

3. Telephoned complaints may be received by the complaint clerk (the complaint room in a large department), who will transfer essential information to the dispatcher by memo, by transferring the call to the dispatcher, or by signaling the dispatcher to monitor the telephone conversation with the complainant. The complaint clerk will then prepare the case sheet and perform other clerical tasks related to it. A physical separation of these two officers is essential in large departments where several complaint clerks are needed to handle the work load. The nature of the tasks makes it desirable that they be separated by not more than a glass partition to exclude noise. The complaint room should then house the switchboard and any other telephone devices needed for expeditiously receiving and handling complaints, and teletype machines should be located in or adjacent to it.

4. A clerk-monitor may maintain the radio log and the dispatch board or map.

5. The number of mobile field radios may necessitate more than one wave band and separate dispatchers to handle field communications on each of two or more frequencies. If the field sets are assigned to areas according to the frequency of their wave bands, dispatchers in separate offices, one for each frequency, may handle all communications for the area to which each is assigned.

Only one main headquarters transmitter is needed up to the point that the load necessitates the installation of additional transmitters on dif-

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 47, Form 5.

ferent frequencies. This is not likely to occur in departments that do not have district stations. The use of more than one main transmitter is discussed in Chap. 18.

Dual Dispatching. The dispatcher's work load may be lightened without relieving him of some of these tasks, however, by making provision in space and equipment for two dispatchers to operate simultaneously during peak hours.¹⁴ This arrangement is worthy of consideration when it appears necessary to relieve the dispatcher of preparing complaint sheets, bulletins, and radio logs. Also, the evils of overworked personnel and deficient service during the peak hours of the shift and idle personnel during the lulls are eliminated by dual dispatchers. During slack periods they can perform essential records tasks that have been permitted to pile up during the rush. They are thus kept busy but not overworked.

When two dispatchers operate together during rush periods, one may accept a telephoned complaint while the other broadcasts information on the one he has just received. In contrast to this prompt service, a lone dispatcher is unable to accept a call transferred to him by the switchboard operator when he is either currently handling a telephone call or broadcasting information he has just received.

Dual dispatchers also provide desirable flexibility in assignment. The second dispatcher may work an overlapping shift selected on the basis of peak load, while the tasks during the remaining 16 hours can be handled by one man, or double strength may be provided during a longer period, such as for two shifts, when the need demands.

Telephone Service. Prompt attention to telephone calls must be assured. The hourly variation in calls is considerable, and a staff adequate to handle the load during the lighter hours in a large department would be swamped during the peak hours. Variation in load is met by increasing and decreasing man power and by dividing and combining tasks. Provision may be made for receiving the information from the complainant as soon as he calls, whether there be one or more dispatchers, by having a clerk engaged at other duties available to answer calls to which the dispatcher is unable to give immediate attention. The staff must be geared for the peak and adequate to handle any emergency that may reasonably be expected. During some hours the communication officers have spare time for records duties that may be accomplished without leaving their posts, but aid on records proves difficult if the communications room is not located adjacent to the general records office.

¹⁴ Equipment requirements for dual dispatching are described in Chap. 17.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE RECORDS DIVISION

Although the administration of records services entails a considerable amount of clerical work, the direction of the activities and the performance of many of the technical operations require a high level of competence. The head of the records division should be a good executive, capable of inspiring his staff with a philosophy of service and courtesy and able to maintain a friendly and cooperative spirit between his division and the members of the other branches of the service. He should be a top-ranking officer of the department who can deal with other commanding officers on an equal footing. The need of the head of the division to possess specialized skills decreases with the size of the organization. Most necessary is ability to direct the tabulation of, and to interpret, statistical data; next is skill in identification procedures.

The records-division head must be able to assign records duties and to coordinate their performance so that all necessary tasks will be accomplished accurately, promptly, and smoothly. His administrative ability is demonstrated, in part, by his skill in assigning tasks so that each officer is fully occupied even though he is required to stay at a designated post to perform infrequent but important duties. For example, the duties of the complaint officer, the booking officer, and the telephone operator may be combined in the small department. On the late shift this member may act as follow-up officer as well. In departments where the load is not great, the dispatcher on one or more shifts may have time to sort, tabulate, and file traffic tickets or to index cases. Even though an officer performs several tasks, the advantages of specialization are not lost.

Perhaps the most difficult administrative problem of the records division is the maintenance of productive relationships with the other branches of the service. Unless these relationships are clearly understood, some records activities may result in friction.

The first step in avoiding conflict between the records and operating divisions is to develop definite policies and regulations governing the records system, the functions of the records unit, and the obligations and duties of other officers in relation to records. These regulations should be prepared jointly by the head of the records division and the heads of the operating divisions under the leadership of the chief. Once the records duties of the several divisions have been agreed upon, the task is to secure conformity.

The records division also has the important task of securing maximum use of its facilities by other divisions. In order to gather facts expertly that will be useful to each of the operating divisions, the staff of the

records division must possess a broad knowledge of police service and a clear understanding of the primary purposes and the methods of operation of each division. Such knowledge also provides a better understanding of the relationships between the records staff and the operating divisions.

The records system is a tool of the chief and supervising officers to assist them in their tasks of management. The operation of controls is frequently initiated by the records staff, mainly through its follow-up procedures. The records division ascertains whether the police job has been properly performed as evidenced by the reports submitted. If the records system is to operate effectively and efficiently, it must check constantly on the records activities of all members of the department.

The assignment to each employee of definite responsibilities is essential to a smoothly operating records division. Through the use of written instructions and through daily guidance by supervisory personnel, each member of the records staff should know precisely what is expected of him. Best results are had when each records task is regularly assigned to one person or, in the case of tasks that must be performed on each tour of duty, to one person on each shift.

Chapter 15

OTHER AUXILIARY SERVICES

Other auxiliary services which must be provided to assure effective police operations include the custody of prisoners, the laboratory examination of physical evidence, the service and maintenance of property and equipment, and the requisition and purchase of essential supplies and equipment.

JAIL DUTIES¹

Since the primary purpose of jail is to provide safe custody, all other jail duties must be performed in a manner to minimize opportunity for escape or injury to the prisoners. The most important duty relating to persons arrested is the review of their cases to establish justification for their detention and, in some cases, for other restrictions on their liberties. This responsibility is usually not given to jail personnel.

The duties that are customarily assigned to jail personnel include the following:

1. The search and control of prisoners during the booking process
2. The booking of prisoners.
3. The custody and return of prisoners' property.

¹ The jail duties under discussion relate to the police jail and not to the city workhouse or prison removed from police headquarters and used principally for the incarceration of convicted prisoners. The prison (in contrast to the jail) has a relationship to police headquarters more nearly corresponding to that of a district station than of a functional division; it usually has no responsibility for supervising the operation of other police lockups.

The integration into the police organization of the city prison is simple because it has no closer relationship to the operating divisions than the county jail. The facilities of the prison may be used to economic advantage for laundering jail blankets, providing a disinfecting service, and cooking food that may be transported to other jails in suitable asbestos-lined containers, thus eliminating the inconvenience and expense of maintaining decentralized cooking facilities or purchasing prepared meals from caterers. Utilizing these facilities does not complicate the simple relationship between the prison and headquarters. Problems of control over prisoners transported to and held at a point removed from headquarters are readily solved by the use of suitable records. (*Police Records*, p. 95.)

4. Accounting for, inspecting, and supervising jail facilities and inmates to assure security, good order, comfort, welfare, cleanliness, and suitable care of department property.
5. Arranging for authorized visitors to see prisoners and the supervision of such visits.
6. Transfer of prisoners to court or to some other jail or institution.
7. Operation of patrol wagon and ambulance.
8. Fingerprinting and photographing prisoners.

All the above-listed tasks are not invariably assigned to jail personnel. The size of the department and its organization and the arrangement of headquarters facilities influence the assignment of duties.

Jail duties are similar to other primary police duties in several respects. The clientele of both are criminals, and the processes of custody and apprehension require similar skills and abilities. Although jail facilities and service are provided to all operating divisions, the responsibility for the custody of prisoners should normally be assigned to the patrol division, because its members are best qualified for the duties and its service is continuous. In small departments, however, records clerks may perform some, or all, jail duties.

The integration into the police organization of jail personnel under the direct control of commanding officers of the patrol division presents no particular problems in organization. The determination of the assignment of some of the above-listed duties either to the records division or to the jail staff, however, deserves some thought.

Booking Prisoners. Since booking a prisoner² is a clerical task, it is desirable that the arrangement of headquarters provide a booking counter adjacent to the records office so that a records clerk, designated as the booking officer, may prepare the record of arrest. When the booking counter is physically removed from the records-office layout and rearrangement is not feasible due to the location of the jail entrance, a decision must be reached as to whether records or jail personnel should be assigned to the post. Determining factors are (1) whether the volume of booking work leaves much free time for other duties; (2) whether the free time may be devoted to jail duties or to records tasks with least inconvenience; and (3) whether there are sufficient jail duties to occupy the full time of a booking officer when he is not engaged in booking prisoners.

Control of Prisoner's Property. The booking officer should issue a property receipt and be responsible for the custody of a prisoner's prop-

²A description of booking records and procedures may be found in *ibid.*, pp. 89-94.

erty³ until the release or transfer of the prisoner. The property should go with the prisoner if he is transferred to another jail. The department property clerk will not be concerned with the care of a prisoner's property except when it is too bulky for storage in the prisoners' property cabinet; it is then transferred to the property clerk.

Wagon and Ambulance Drivers. Driving the ambulance and patrol wagon is a part-time duty that may take an officer from his usual tasks for protracted periods and sometimes during peaks of routine activity.⁴ Since wagon and ambulance duties require skills and abilities more nearly comparable to those needed in the performance of jail than of records tasks, advantages are derived from their assignment to jail personnel. Records clerks may perform essential jail duties during their absence.

Fingerprinting and Photographing Prisoners. The practice of bringing prisoners from the jail into the identification quarters for fingerprinting and photographing is unnecessary, unsound, and wastes the time of all officers involved. Such transfer offers a chance for escape, especially if the distance is great or if the transfer is from one building to another, through public corridors or several rooms. Prisoners should be fingerprinted and photographed in the jail proper or in an adjoining room with only one door—the communicating door.

Prisoners should not be fingerprinted and photographed by an identification officer because his time is wasted in traveling from the records office to the jail, sometimes a considerable distance, and in waiting for admission to jail when the jailer is occupied with jail duties. Moreover, prisoners arrested and released during hours when identification officers are not on duty will not be fingerprinted if this task is performed by them; otherwise 24-hour identification officer service would be required. Prisoners should be fingerprinted and photographed by the jailer in the jail area. Neither process is difficult to learn.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE JAIL

Departmental regulations should prevent the improper detention of innocent persons and the imposition of unwarranted restrictions on the personal liberties of all prisoners, on the one hand, and the unauthorized release, the failure to impose suitable restrictions when required, or

³ A description of records and procedures used in the control of a prisoner's property may be found in *ibid.*, pp. 111-113.

⁴ The failure to give ambulance and wagon drivers headquarters tasks that may be performed between runs is a waste of costly man power and a mark of poor administration.

escape of prisoners through police carelessness, on the other. Regulations should also assure the protection of all prisoners from abuse either by the police or by other prisoners, and require the hospitalization of critically ill or injured prisoners. The head of the department must assure himself that such regulations place responsibility precisely and that they are administered with good judgment.

Authority for Detention, Release, and Restrictions. The circumstances of the arrest must be reviewed to give assurance that they justify placing the person in jail and, in some instances, restricting his privileges of release on bail, of telephone communication, and of visits with persons who call to see him.⁵ This is a grave responsibility, and the chief must assure himself that the authority to make such decisions is given to members possessing completely reliable judgment.

The high level of competence needed in the successful performance of these and other important jail duties is the principal reason for their assignment to the patrol division; the commanding officers in patrol usually have a broad background of experience and training to guide them in their decisions. In departments where all other jail duties are assigned to the records division or to some other service unit, the review of cases of persons arrested should remain with the patrol commander. In any event it is important that one officer on each night shift be ex-

⁵ Restrictions on bail must be limited to that "reasonable" period of time the police have in which to take a prisoner before a proper judicial officer. "It is ordinarily the duty of an officer after making an arrest, either with or without a warrant, to take the prisoner, within a reasonable time, before a justice of the peace, magistrate, or other proper judicial officer having jurisdiction, in order that he may be examined and held, or dealt with as the case requires. It is sometimes said that this must be done immediately, or forthwith, or without delay. These requirements are construed to mean no more than that this duty must be performed with all the dispatch and promptness possible under the circumstances. Accordingly, an officer may detain a person arrested in custody for a reasonable time until he can conveniently and safely take him before a magistrate, if the circumstances are such as to preclude an immediate examination, hearing, or trial, as when the arrest was made at night or on Sunday; when the court was not in session; where the prisoner himself occasions the delay, as where he is drunk; or where the arresting officer is unable to find a judicial officer. Similarly, a person arrested may waive his right to be taken before a magistrate, or consent to accompanying an officer without being taken before a magistrate. An officer may not detain a person arrested in custody longer than is reasonably necessary under the circumstances, or arbitrarily refuse to place a formal charge against a prisoner, thus preventing him from obtaining bail; nor may an officer detain the person arrested for any purpose other than to take him before a magistrate, and, accordingly, it has been held that a peace officer may not keep a person arrested in his custody for an unreasonable length of time in order to procure evidence from him, or to obtain his confession." (6 *Corpus Juris Secundum* 618.)

clusively responsible for decisions to incarcerate a person or to impose restrictions on the liberties of prisoners.⁶ During the day, the presence of division heads makes it possible for them to impose restrictions on persons arrested by their officers.

Errors in judgment in reference to prisoners may result in three serious immediate consequences: (1) Innocent persons may be jailed, and personal liberties denied others without justification. (2) Overcautiousness may defeat the police purpose, as when guilty persons are not jailed because some real or fancied technical point is given undue weight under the circumstances and when a failure to impose justified restrictions checkmates the investigation by enabling friends or accomplices of the prisoner to destroy evidence and prepare alibis. (3) Interdivisional friction may result from injudicious decisions made against arresting officers of other divisions.⁷

The review by a commanding officer of the circumstances of the arrests of all persons at the time of booking before the prisoner is lodged in jail is not necessary. It would interfere with his other important

⁶ For example, written orders for arrest, for holding a prisoner without bail for investigation or pending the health officer's examination for venereal disease, and for denying communication privileges to a prisoner, should all be approved by a commanding officer before being issued, and the commanding officers should be held responsible for the action they take in such cases.

The commanding officer of the division responsible for jail duties should be required to check daily on prisoners whose privileges are thus restricted and report to the chief of police any case wherein it might appear that privileges were unduly restricted or that a prisoner was being unlawfully detained.

Commanding officers should be held responsible for the treatment received by prisoners, they should not permit unnecessary force, or violent, profane, or obscene language to be used in the management of a prisoner, nor should they permit officers unnecessarily to humiliate or embarrass prisoners. Because of its effect on the attitude of the prisoners, police conduct at show-up should be exemplary. The commanding officer should see that children are not incarcerated in any jail, hold-over, or room in violation of the law or department regulations.

Commanding officers should see that prisoners are assisted in communicating with friends and relatives and in obtaining bond when restrictions are not imposed on these privileges. They should also be authorized to release misdemeanor prisoners on their own recognizance or on a bond less than the amount ordinarily required.

⁷ Arresting officers who feel that unwise decisions have been made against them, however, have recourse in immediate appeal to the head of their division. Regulations should grant to the commanding officer heading each operating division final authority in such matters without reference to the chief; this is justified because (1) the caution and judgment of division heads, assured by their rank and long service, qualifies them to judge the peculiar merits of each case in their jurisdiction, and (2) some facts relating to the arrest may be revealed to the division head but concealed from all others.

duties and so restrict him to the booking counter that he would be nothing more than a glorified booking officer. Prescreening by the booking officer makes immediate review by the commanding officer unnecessary. Persons arrested are processed immediately, except when the booking officer doubts the justification for the arrest or the proposed restrictions; these he should hold in the booking room while he refers the case to the commanding officer for decision. The commanding officer, however, is responsible for all cases processed by the booking officer and should be required by regulation to review the circumstances surrounding the arrest of all persons jailed during his tour of duty and of persons jailed previously whose liberties were restricted during his shift.⁸

Injured Prisoners. The police frequently arrest persons who have been injured in fights or as the result of accidents or who may be suffering from some infirmity, prior injury, or disease. Occasionally the police use physical force to subdue a person in order to effect an arrest, and injuries sometimes result. Prisoners are sometimes injured in jail as a result of fights with other prisoners or falls due to intoxication, fainting, or epileptic attacks.

The public is inclined to look upon the injury and illness of prisoners with suspicion and to believe that these injuries are evidence of police brutality. Because of this attitude, it is doubly important that the police give careful attention to injured or ill prisoners and detain in jail no person who is in a critical condition. Since the police are not competent to judge the extent of an injury or the seriousness of an illness, fairness to the prisoner demands that he be examined by a competent physician.

The commanding officer should be informed of injured and ill prisoners at the time they are brought to headquarters or when the fact is discovered in jail, and steps must be taken to safeguard the life and health of the prisoner and the interests of the department. Such prisoners should be sent immediately to a hospital or examined by a physician, and they should not be held in jail except on the written approval of the examining physician. A suitable injured-prisoner report⁹ protects the prisoner by giving greater assurance of examination by a physician, and it protects the police by recording the approval by medical authority

⁸ A review of the arrest record will suffice in some instances, while in others he may need to examine the reports of arresting officers. He will discuss questionable cases with the arresting officer before making a decision. A description of records and procedures used in restricting the prisoner's liberties may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 104-109.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 109-110.

of the incarceration of the prisoner, showing that examination was made and that, where necessary, treatment was given.

Jail Inspection. Periodic jail inspections coupled with the specific assignment to designated shifts of responsibility for cleaning the jail and performing other necessary duties give the department head some assurance of the security of the prisoners and of their comfort, health, and welfare. The jailer should be required to inspect the jail and prisoners approximately once each hour and to report any unusual or unsatisfactory condition. He should maintain order in the jail, locking unruly prisoners in individual cells. He should prevent the operation of a kangaroo court or other forms of extortion or physical punishment.

An accounting of persons in jail should be made at each shift change by actual head count and roll call of names on the jail register.¹⁰ Personnel on the day shift should be responsible for scrubbing and general cleanliness, and the commanding officer of that tour should make a daily check of its accomplishment; a thorough weekly inspection of the jail should be made for weapons, contraband, and other prohibited articles, and for evidence of attempted escapes, as well as of the cleanliness of the jail quarters, of bedding, and other facilities.

Trusties. Convicted prisoners may be used to economic advantage as trustees to assist in maintenance and other headquarters tasks that require only simple skills and little supervision. They are especially useful in janitor work, in servicing police vehicles, and in performing other unskilled tasks. Sometimes skilled artisans become regular police customers in consequence of their drinking habits, and their services may then be utilized in building and equipment repairs.

Responsibility for the custody of trustees should be imposed on the maintenance division or other police unit utilizing their services; jail personnel should not be required to guard them, except when a number of them may be engaged on a work project removed from police headquarters. As a general rule the safekeeping of trustees is not difficult when they are wisely selected from the group least likely to attempt escape, usually identifiable by previous convictions for the same offense, long-time local residence, relatively short sentence for a minor offense, and previous experience as a trusty.

THE POLICE LABORATORY

The value of a competently staffed and suitably equipped police laboratory is now generally recognized by police officials, the public, and governing boards. The question is not whether the police should have a

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 111.

laboratory, but rather, how completely it should be staffed and equipped, where it should be fitted into the organization, and what its duties and relationships with the operating divisions should be.

Integration of the Laboratory into the Police Organization. While in many departments the laboratory has developed under the stimulating guidance and enthusiasm of an identification officer, sooner or later it should be removed from his control, since in his true capacity he is concerned primarily with the identification of persons from records (see Chap. 7). The spot in the organization structure into which the laboratory will then be fitted is determined in part by the extent that it has developed from its rudimentary form into a full-fledged laboratory with adequate space, equipment, and competent staff.

The laboratory provides a service to all operating units, and there is, therefore, some advantage in not attaching it to any one of these divisions. The laboratory should be given the independent status of a separate service unit reporting directly to the chief or to an assistant, especially in large departments. This arrangement is justified by (1) the importance of laboratory work, (2) the protection so provided from the influence of operating divisions, thus further assuring complete objectivity of conclusions, and (3) the close attention needed from the top level, since it is one of the newer police services still in the process of development.

Staff and Equipment Requirements. Scientific crime detection has been so recently accepted by the police and courts that substantial developments in this field in the immediate future may be predicted. A constant increase in the volume of physical evidence to be examined may be anticipated. Probably not over 20 per cent of physical evidence that should be examined is presently being brought to laboratories for study in the best equipped departments. The department should have, within its financial limitations, a laboratory with staff and equipment adequate to examine physical evidence brought to it by operating personnel.

When no evidence is brought in for examination, there is manifestly no need for laboratory service. The volume of such evidence is influenced by the interest and enthusiasm of the force in scientific procedures, which in turn is promoted by training and by operating procedures designed to facilitate its collection. The special investigators mentioned in Chap. 7 assure the collection of physical evidence for laboratory examination.¹² Responsibility for developing department facilities for the collection and examination of physical evidence and for promoting public and official

¹² A discussion of laboratory reports on the examination of evidence may be found in *Ibid.*, p. 77.

acceptance of an enlarged scientific crime-detection program clearly rests on the chief.

Supervision of the Special Investigators. While the laboratory staff does not have direct control over the special investigators, the criminalists should be responsible for the staff supervision of the performance of technical duties at crime and accident scenes, and of the care, maintenance, and operation of essential equipment (see Chap. 4). Weekly inspections should be made of equipment carried in the special investigators' automobiles to check on the adequacy of supplies, to discover damage or loss of equipment, and to ascertain whether the equipment is being maintained in good operating order by being kept clean and correctly arranged. The continuous inspection of articles brought to the laboratory may reveal inadequacies in photographic skill, carelessness in handling evidence, and slovenly sketching and reporting practices.¹³

Photographic Work. All department photographic work conducted away from headquarters is the task of the special investigators, while all copying work and the photographing of evidence at headquarters should be done by the laboratory staff. The department needs only one darkroom, except in the rare situation where the volume and specialization of work and the space limitations of the darkroom justify a second one. The darkroom should be within and a part of the laboratory. Quantity production, specialization, maximum use of facilities, and suitable controls derived from such concentration of darkroom operations assure maximum benefits.

The Lie-detector Operator. The progressive police administrator will also obtain a polygraph lie detector and the services of a competent operator to assist in the interrogation of suspects and other persons.¹⁴ The operator should be attached to the laboratory staff. He performs a service to all operating divisions and should not be attached to one of them; he is engaged in scientific crime detection and utilizes a delicate, scientific laboratory instrument for his purpose; his activities will receive a more sympathetic support from the head of the crime laboratory than

¹³ The laboratory staff should point out to the investigator concerned any shortcomings in investigative practices which come to their attention. If this fails to produce needed improvements, defects should be reported to the laboratory director and by him carried up the chain of command until the required correction is accomplished. Subordinate laboratory staff members must not attempt to give orders or instructions to the investigative officers.

¹⁴ A discussion of polygraph reports may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 76-77. Lie-detection procedures are discussed in detail by Fred E. Inbau in *Lie Detection and Criminal Interrogation* (2d ed., The Williams & Wilkins Company, Baltimore,

from the head of an operating division. Should he not be attached to the laboratory, however, the next most desirable spot is in the detective division, since this unit will need his services more than any other one.

MAINTENANCE

Satisfactory maintenance and repair of property and equipment promote efficiency, morale, and prestige of the service. Police headquarters must be kept spotlessly clean. Floors must be swept daily and those in public spaces more frequently; they must be regularly and thoroughly scrubbed; sand jars, replacing cuspidors, must be cleaned as frequently; the windows and walls must be washed periodically, and the walls painted in light color as needed; roofs, floors, walls, windows, and lighting and plumbing fixtures will require occasional repair; at times there will be need for renovation and remodeling. Communication facilities (radio, recall lights and audible signals, call boxes, and other equipment) also need maintenance and repair. Department-owned vehicles must be greased, washed, and repaired; the oil must be checked, replenished, and changed; batteries must be checked, watered, and charged; tires must be kept correctly inflated and repaired. Traffic signs, signals, and markings, and parking meters also must be installed and maintained in good order.

Personnel equipment, likewise, must be maintained in suitable condition. Frayed and patched clothing, gravy spotted, sweat begrimed, and out of press, damages morale and prestige as decisively as the unkempt and unclean appearance of the person created by the need for haircut, shave, manicure, or bath. Flashlights, firearms, handcuffs, leather equipment, and notebooks must also be maintained in good order.

Automobile Maintenance. Motor-vehicle equipment may be maintained by a central municipal repair shop, a police shop, or by private contract. The choice should be based on the quality, convenience, and cost of the service.

Theoretically a central municipal repair shop is able to maintain police vehicles most economically. A police department is deeply concerned with the manner in which its vehicles are maintained because police operations are so vitally affected by poor quality of maintenance and by sluggish service, which may keep vehicles out of service an unreasonably long time. The number of department automobiles is usually geared to routine operations, with an inadequate number to supply spare vehicles for protracted repair periods, and delays in repair and maintenance consequently seriously impair police service and prove expensive, since costly man power is then not being used most productively. A shop under

direct police control is more likely to adjust its operations toward a minimum tie-up of vehicles during hours when most needed, and its location in, or adjacency to, headquarters may provide a greater convenience than a central municipal shop. This is not invariably the case, however; in a well-managed municipal government a central shop may provide a superior quality of service at less cost and inconvenience than a police shop.

Motor equipment in a small department may be most satisfactorily serviced and repaired by a private garage; while in a somewhat larger department, the servicing may be done by the police department and the repairs by private contract. As the amount of work increases, the police department may undertake motor tune-ups and minor repairs. The department having more than 10 automobiles may make all mechanical repairs but employ private shops for body and chassis repairs. Departments having 15 vehicles may make all repairs in their own shop.

The vehicles require a tri-daily service at the start of each tour of duty: gasoline, oil, and water must be replenished, the windshield and door glasses cleaned, the interior swept out, and the supply of tickets and other printed matter replenished. This service should be provided at headquarters in order to minimize time loss and to permit the use of trusty labor and a more complete supervision of the officers and service crew. When suitable facilities are provided, 24-hour trusty service for battery and tire changes may also be available under the control of the headquarters staff.

The gasoline pump is the bottleneck in the service operation; in order to diminish delay, an adequate number should be installed, and cars on beats that require less patrol mileage may be serviced only once or twice each day. In larger departments it may be advisable to have the officers report off duty on a staggered schedule in order to avoid leaving the town uncovered at change of shift and to diminish the service delay.

Radio Maintenance. Police radio maintenance may be by private contract in very small departments and by one of the dispatchers in slightly larger departments. The appointment of a full-time radio technician for its maintenance is justified in departments having more than a dozen two-way radios.

Tailor Shop. The amount of work in a large department may justify a tailor shop, even though the uniforms are privately owned. This shop may be operated as a private shop, the tailor being given headquarters space in return for special rates to the officers, or the tailor's salary and cost of supplies may be paid by the department and the services provided to the officers at cost.

Armorer. The full-time services of a gunsmith are not justified except in very large departments which furnish sidearms or when the time for reloading ammunition and servicing other police weapons requires the full time of one man. However, the weekly servicing and inspection of department-owned riot guns, rifles, and submachine guns is an important task requiring an established procedure to minimize the hazard of accidental discharge and to assure the delivery of weapons from vehicles and gun cabinets and their return, loaded or unloaded, as prescribed by regulation. Accomplishment should be assured by frequent and thorough inspection.

Maintenance in Small Forces. In small departments the operating personnel take a more active part in the supervision of maintenance and repair services than in larger ones. For example, the communications officer may service and repair police radio equipment in addition to his regular communications duty; a traffic officer may supervise the maintenance of signs, signals, and marking, often by the use of trusty labor; a policeman may supervise trusties engaged in sweeping and scrubbing headquarters or in effecting small repairs. However, a janitor in a larger department is assigned cleaning duties, using either trusties or paid assistants.

Maintenance Division. In larger departments advantages are gained by combining all maintenance and repair services (with the exception of the tailor and pressing shop) under one man, the head of a maintenance division. Police personnel are then relieved of these duties, and the qualifications of a maintenance specialist usually result in an improvement in the quality of service. The coordination thus affected also permits utilizing maintenance personnel to better advantage by transferring them from one duty to another to meet special needs. The dissimilar nature of the tasks performed in a tailor and pressing shop justify assigning the supervision of this activity to the officer responsible for the custody of police uniforms.

Operating units that use the property or equipment subject to maintenance and repair by a central maintenance unit will be concerned with the quality and promptness of the service rendered and consequently will check on the performance of this unit.¹⁵

PURCHASING

Methods for the procurement of property and supplies must be established to assure that commodities are of suitable quality and that they

¹⁵ A description of equipment and property-maintenance records and their use in checking on performance may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 165-171.

are purchased at the best price. The ideal arrangement is for the police department to pool its purchase requirements with those of other departments and obtain the goods it requires through a central agency headed by a qualified purchasing agent using efficient methods.

All purchases through a central city purchasing agent should have the approval of the chief, or of someone designated by him. In the absence of the central agency the chief should designate a member of the force as purchasing agent. This officer should be required to follow approved purchasing procedures.¹⁶

Only in very large departments would the full time of one man be required for purchases; in smaller ones he may undertake these responsibilities in addition to his other duties. Whether full time or part time, and whether serving as a department purchasing agent or merely as one who approves police purchases for the chief, it seems most advantageous that he be a member of the records division. He may then also be given responsibility for the maintenance of a department accounting system in the event the city finance director does not provide a suitable service.¹⁷

Chapter 16

THE POLICE BUILDING

The success of the police administrator in providing a high quality of service is largely dependent on the manner in which he organizes his force, staffs it with competent personnel, and supplies it with suitable working quarters and equipment. Previous chapters have described the manner in which the force should be organized. Problems of staffing are discussed in Chap. 19. The present chapter deals with the specifications of the police headquarters building, and the next chapter outlines factors the chief should consider in equipping his force for the job.

The satisfactory performance of the varied duties included in a well-rounded police program is dependent on suitable buildings and equipment. Their adequacy and condition decisively influence the quality and efficiency of service as well as the morale of the force. Good police buildings and equipment create a favorable public impression, raise the prestige of the department, and aid substantially in creating satisfactory public relations. To assure maximum suitability to their purpose, which should invariably be the basis of design and selection, specifications should be based on a study of the manner in which police buildings and equipment will be used.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Fortunate is the police chief who has the rare opportunity to design a new headquarters building to meet the needs of his force. Then he must give consideration to its location to assure maximum accessibility to the area being served. Adequate ground space should be obtained to provide off-street parking for all police vehicles and for additions to the building to meet future needs. Nearly always, however, the department head inherits a building with no vacant space around it, and usually the structure was designed to meet police requirements of a bygone day. If the quarters are to be used effectively, he usually must rearrange the offices and facilities, with attendant remodeling, to enable his force to be organized so that it may operate with maximum efficiency.

Whether the police chief is designing a new headquarters or remodeling his present one, he should consider the offices to be housed in it and its

general design and construction. Factors to be considered include space requirements, appearance, maintenance, light, ventilation, electric ducts, and provision for the interoffice transfer of records. The building should be designed for the normal operation of the plant with a minimum headquarters staff, for its temporary operation with a staff greatly reduced as the result of outside emergency assignments, and for the operation of communication and reporting facilities by a greatly enlarged staff to meet unusual needs. In order to expedite operations and make the most productive use of personnel, consideration must be given to the manner of handling inquiries, complaints, communications, records, prisoners, and property. Facilities should be arranged so that, in some operations, many tasks may be performed by one person in one location and, in other operations, interrelated tasks may be effectively performed by many persons in different locations.

Thought must also be given to minimizing the possibility of escape of prisoners, to resisting outside attack, and to public convenience and the convenience and welfare of police personnel. Offices should be accessible to the public and to police officers in proportion to the use they make of them; the design should also enable the public to give information to the police without being overheard and, in some instances, without being observed.

The architect who designs the police building will not be familiar with the procedures of police administration and the facilities needed in police operations, hence the chief must describe the required features and the purposes they are to serve so that he may design a building or remodel an old one to meet police needs. While the factors are discussed in reference to police headquarters, most of the points are also applicable to district stations.

Offices to Be Housed in Police Headquarters. Convenience in operations, with attendant saving in police man power as well as public convenience, dictates that there be housed in the headquarters building all police offices and also the court, the prosecutor's office, and the traffic violators' bureau. Although officials housed in the latter offices are not under police control, the police participate in their activities and their services are so closely related to police tasks that adjoining offices and intercommunication arrangements will greatly facilitate their operations and those of the police department. While the use of these intercommunicating facilities may justifiably be denied the public, the location of these offices adjacent to police headquarters is also a public convenience.

In addition to the usual police offices, provision should be made for adequate assembly spaces; for a gymnasium, pistol range, and crime laboratory; for the radio transmitter, if located at police headquarters

is not unsuited; for maintenance and service operations, and the storage of supplies, parts, and property in police custody; and for a garage to provide off-street storage and service of police vehicles.

Design for Future Needs. A police building should be designed for future needs as well as for present ones. Provision for present needs is comparatively simple; to foresee future needs presents a more difficult problem whose solution requires imagination. Police quarters built to accommodate the department for 25 years in the future are usually found to be too small within a relatively short time; sometimes the building is discovered to be inadequate on the first day of occupancy. The probable population growth and future developments in police practices should be anticipated, and the consequent growth in volume and variety of police operations and the needs during wartime and emergencies should be considered. Rearrangements of offices and other facilities should be planned to meet these future needs.

Generous provision of assembly space will provide some room for future expansion and emergency needs during catastrophes. Space should also be provided for the installation of additional cells in the jail.

General Type of Construction. Police headquarters should be pleasing in design and appearance and of an architectural type that will not date it. Normally it should conform to the architectural style of surrounding buildings, if they are of modern design and construction. It should be fire-, flood-, and earthquake-proof and constructed of material that will require minimum maintenance and infrequent, or no, exterior renovation. To lessen the need for stairs and elevators, the number of floors should be held to minimum requirements. The jail, however, should be on an upper floor.

Floors and Walls. Material to be used in the construction of floors and interior walls, selected with a view to easy maintenance, should be durable, easily cleaned, and preferably of a substance unlikely to require frequent repair or repainting. Cleanliness is important in all public buildings, and in none, not even excepting the hospital, should this virtue be given more assiduous attention in building design and maintenance than in police headquarters.

The floor material is especially important in lobbies, corridors, other public spaces, and in areas where prisoners are temporarily held. Floor cleaning is a continuing process during the hours of public use, and suitable material will simplify the task and thus give further assurance of suitable cleanliness. Terrazzo floors are excellent for this purpose, although any tile floor is suitable that may be waxed and brought to a high polish and that will not wear appreciably, chip, crack, or have

in its design crevices in which dirt may lodge. Jail floors should, of course, be of suitably pigmented, dustproof, reinforced concrete and should be kept waxed.

Wainscoting to a height of 6 or 7 feet in public spaces and also in police offices should likewise be of a durable, easily cleaned material that may be readily washed, such as marble or tile. Otherwise hand marks and marks left by heads and chairs leaning against the wall will present a dirty appearance and will necessitate frequent repainting. Except in the jail areas where they should be of concrete, partitions should be of a construction, such as hollow tile, to facilitate future changes in office arrangement.

Minimum Use of Partitions. Unnecessary partitions should be avoided, and space separation should be effected by the use of counters. The spaces are thus left open to public view, an arrangement that encourages the presentation of a neat and businesslike appearance, with materials not in use stored out of sight. This arrangement also facilitates supervision, thus providing further assurance against loafing, newspaper reading, and other obvious acts of inattention to duty.

The number of private offices and small rooms should be kept to the minimum required for effective operations. Specialization often creates an unwarranted demand for private offices, and private offices in turn promote a feeling of independence and unwillingness to perform tasks outside of the specialty. Private offices make supervision more difficult; the occupants are tempted to turn their attention to outside matters and to engage in activities not strictly police business.

The need for privacy when interviewing some complainants and when interrogating suspects is recognized and should be met by the provision of a suitable number of rooms to be used for these exclusive purposes. A commanding officer who spends much time interviewing complainants should, when the need is real, be provided with a private office. Glass partitions that permit an unobstructed view of his entire division is then desirable to facilitate supervising his officers and seeing at a glance who is available.

Windows. Windows designed to permit easy washing from the inside promote periodic cleaning by the maintenance staff, perhaps with the use of trustees and without the need for special equipment. Some windows offer an escape opportunity to prisoners being interrogated or being taken from one point to another in the building. Such windows should be of a design, or provided with ornamental grillwork, to impede quick flight. The appearance of bars should be avoided.

Consideration should be given to security and the shielding of the public from unpleasant sights and sounds when designing window open-

ings for the jail areas, especially those opening off the cell blocks and trusty quarters. The opportunities presented to look into jail windows from surrounding buildings must be avoided by location of the windows when possible, otherwise by their design. Translucent glass does not entirely solve this problem because windows must be opened at times for ventilation, and it is sometimes possible for prisoners as well as outsiders to break a pane in order to provide a better view.

Security considerations rule that the jail should not be on the ground floor, and when it is, particular attention must be given to safeguarding the windows from outside attack. Windows on upper floors are usually safe from outside attack, but the opportunity remains for contraband articles to be smuggled into jail, even when the windows are separated from the cell block by an inspection corridor. This hazard may be lessened by suitable outside screens over all jail windows, including those in the trusty quarters, which will make impossible pulling even a note through on a string.

Utilities. Provision should be made for suitably placed ducts for electric wiring to meet present and future needs. Wires and cables are needed to operate a variety of devices: the radio; electric locks; signal lights to show the insecurity of doors and to designate assignment, location, and availability of personnel; bells and other sound devices to indicate that service is desired, that a certain officer is wanted, or that an emergency has arisen; loud-speakers at strategic locations in the building; and other interoffice communication. Similar wires must be provided for microphone installations in speaking panels, jail cells, and interview rooms, so that conversations of prisoners and suspects may be monitored and recorded at a central control point.

A gasoline-driven generator to supply electric power in event of failure of the regular source (see Chap. 17) is essential to assure continued police operations during power failures, and this installation may require circuits in addition to those ordinarily provided. It is essential that current up to the limit of the generator capacity, be supplied for radio transmission and for illuminating offices where important police operations are conducted. In some quarters it may be desirable to furnish emergency electric power also for elevator operations. Electric locks and interoffice communications essential to operations during emergency must likewise be powered.

On the basis of the long-term plan for the rearrangement of offices and facilities to meet future needs, provision must be made for ducts in the floors to accommodate changed requirements that result from the relocation of partitions. Similar future needs in water, heat, and gas should also be considered.

Light and Ventilation. Special attention must be given to illumination and ventilation. Dark corners and passageways invite uncleanliness and should be avoided; when unavoidable they should be lightened by illumination and the use of light-colored construction material or paint. Suitability of illumination to the particular task in the records office and other locations where clerks use their eyes continuously on records is so important that a lighting engineer should be consulted.¹

The provision of security in jail quarters and in areas where prisoners are temporarily detained sometimes creates acute ventilation problems that can only be solved by forced draft. This applies also to rooms where the lack of a window is otherwise a virtue, such as interview rooms, storerooms, and vaults. Lavatories, shower rooms, locker rooms, dark-rooms, and some laboratory rooms likewise present unusual ventilation problems. The architect's attention should be directed to these problems and he should also assure an adequate supply of fresh air to all points in the building.

Air-conditioning facilities should be provided in most sections of the country to assure comfortable conditions that promote maximum working efficiency. Air conditioning should also be provided in the jail areas in localities where high temperature and humidity make it desirable.

Locks. Doors to police offices that provide 24-hour service do not need locks. There are some doors, however, that should be accessible to all members of the force but from which the public should be excluded. These include doors to police lavatories, doors in public spaces leading to recreational and other police facilities, and sometimes doors leading to the space housing the courtroom and the traffic violators' bureau. These doors should be equipped with locks that can be operated by the call-box key that is in the possession of each officer.

Acoustics. The acoustics of the police building influence the effectiveness of operations, and difficulties may be avoided by the use of acoustical material on the ceilings and on the walls above the wainscoting. Special problems that deserve the attention of an acoustical engineer are frequently found in the dispatcher's office, in the target range and adjoining area, in the courtroom and assembly rooms, and in the large unpartitioned spaces. The acoustical properties of cells, trusty quarters, and other locations where microphones are installed, need attention to assure reception with a minimum level of background noise.

DESIGN FOR OPERATIONS

The importance of the design of a police building to suit its purpose cannot be overemphasized. Especially important are the location and

¹ This service is usually provided at no cost by the local electric company.

arrangement of offices housing police records, the dispatcher, the commanding officer in immediate charge of police operations, the booking room, and the jail. Unsuitable arrangement and location of offices and other facilities impose restrictions on the organization of the force, on the economical assignment of office personnel and their effective operations, and on the use of superior procedures.

Design to Resist Attack and Protect from Sabotage. The design of the building should reduce to a minimum the number of positions to be manned should the building be attacked by a lynching mob or other outside force, so that it can be defended with minimum strength. Certain positions in the building should also be designed to lessen the attack hazard by providing space in which the attendant may seek cover if attacked and by assuring a view of the position by other personnel on duty at nearby positions not visible to the attacker. Positions within the building most likely to be attacked are jail entrances and the dispatcher's room. Attention must likewise be given to protection against sabotage, especially of communications and lighting facilities.

Design for Handling the Public. The police building should be identified by a distinctive electric sign, the front entrance should be brightly illuminated, and if steps lead to it, they should be broad and easy with suitable handrails. The lobby should contain a conspicuously located, well-arranged, and easily understood building directory. Directional arrows on corridor walls should indicate the general location of rooms by numbers. Each door number and the title of the individual or unit housed in the room should be designated at vision height on the wall on the side from which the door opens, and each public desk should have on it the name of the officer on duty at the time.

In order to attain its maximum usefulness, the information counter should be so placed in relation to the entrance door that it is the first thing that a citizen observes on entering. The certainty of the citizen locating it without inquiry should be further assured by neon sign.

Corridors should be ample to meet traffic needs without crowding. Offices most frequented by the public should be placed nearest the entrance in so far as this is possible. Reception rooms, with reception desks or counters, should be provided those organization units receiving large numbers of callers so that they will not need to stand in the corridors. Chairs should be provided for visitors in the reception rooms and also in corridors that are used as reception rooms.

Public lavatories separated from those used by the members of the department should be provided in the police building for men and also for women.

Design for Handling Records. A building for a small department should be designed to permit the concentration of the five principal

desk duties (operating the switchboard, receiving complaints, dispatching officers, furnishing information, and booking prisoners) in a public location and as a part of, or adjacent to, the records office. The conditions necessitating a separation of these tasks were discussed in Chap. 14; the building must be designed accordingly. Complaint, arrest, and communication records must be filed in the records office, and the information clerk must rely on it in answering inquiries. The relative need of these tasks for juxtaposition to the records office must be appraised if wise decisions are to be made as to their location.

The information-supplying service has manifestly the least need for records-division services; the clerk can obtain needed information by telephone. The booking process has the next least need. The relationship is limited to forwarding a copy of the arrest record (1) to the complaint clerk for registering, (2) to the records office for search to ascertain before the release of the prisoner whether he is wanted, and (3) to the records office for filing, following the release of the prisoner.

Complaint and Communications Tasks in the Records Office. The desirability of placing complaint and communications facilities in the records office has been emphasized (see Chap. 14). Consideration must also be given to the need for expansion of communications facilities and operations during Halloween and at times of emergencies (see Chap. 17).

Devices for Transferring Records. When, in remodeling a building, the complaint room and the records office cannot be combined, they should be tied together by a pneumatic tube, dumb-waiter, or other device for the safe and speedy transfer of records between them. It is likewise important that a similar system be used to transfer records of arrest from the booking clerk to the complaint clerk for registration, and to the records office (when it is separated from the complaint room) for search. While such a device is a convenient means of communication for an information desk separated from the records office and the complaint room, the actual need must be measured in terms of the number of complaints received at this point. The tie-in should be with the complaint room, which should serve as a diversion point for records received for some other location. This is especially necessary when all three locations (the complaint room, booking room, and information counter) are removed from the records office.

Mailboxes should be provided to facilitate the distribution among the operating divisions of duplicate case sheets, copies of the daily bulletin, follow-up indicators, and other police reports and records. Boxes for this purpose are best installed in a counter that has slots through which the records may be dropped and, on the lobby side, doors for easy access. The boxes should be in a location easily accessible to the commanding

officers they are serving and at the same time conveniently near a records clerk, through whose hands the documents routinely pass, in order to assure their prompt and accurate distribution. In smaller departments this will be the complaint clerk, and the boxes may be built into the complaint counter, except when he is in an inconveniently isolated position. When the information counter is readily accessible and is tied into the complaint room with a device for transferring such records, the task may be assigned to the information clerk. In other departments, the records-office counter may be the logical location for the boxes.

The number of boxes required depends on the size of the department, the nature of its organization, and the office arrangement. One box should be furnished for each patrol-division platoon and one for each of the other divisions. At least one box should be available to officers for depositing traffic tickets. In large departments boxes may be justified for the police laboratory, the radio technician, the polygraph operator, the garage mechanic, and the parking-meter maintainer.

Accessibility of Records. The records office should have counters or windows readily accessible to police officers and to the public, but actual entry into the area should be made difficult for everyone, including police officers. No one but the records staff and the commanding officers should be permitted to enter. The entrance door should be located inconspicuously in order to lessen the number of demands for entrance which must be refused. The door should be kept locked, and keys should be furnished to the records-office staff. If the door is visible from the complaint desk or some constantly occupied post in the records office, it may be conveniently controlled by an electric lock.

It is desirable that the statistician be located physically within the records office so that duplicate records will be unnecessary for his use. When so located, he may obtain his data directly from the original reports. In large departments it is important to make space provision for tabulating equipment.

Records-office Space. One hundred square feet of records-office floor space for each 10 policemen is a useful guide in computing space requirements for the convenient operation of the records staff. Storage space and the space used for communications tasks and the complaint desk are not included in this estimate. Factors that influence the amount of space reserved for records include the completeness of the records system, the spread of working hours of the records staff, the existence of pillars or other physical obstructions in the room, the number and location of doors and windows, and the total space of the headquarters building.

Design for Handling Prisoners. The jail facilities include the booking room, court holdovers, and the show-up room and passageways from the jail to these rooms; padded and other cells; facilities for drunks and for fingerprinting and photographing prisoners and for their medical examination and treatment; showers, visiting rooms, kitchen, storerooms, and trusty quarters. Jail facilities should be arranged with a view to providing (1) minimum opportunity for escape, (2) operating convenience to assure maximum efficiency and consequent minimum personnel requirements, (3) protection of the public from indecent and unpleasant sights and sounds, and (4) for the comfort and welfare of the prisoners, including one or more doors for mass evacuation in the event of emergency.

Jail Area. The jail area is that part of a correctly designed police building that contains the facilities enumerated above (except the booking room, court holdovers, and the show-up room and passageways from the jail to these rooms) without the interposition of spaces used for any other purpose, either by the public or by police personnel.

There are two jail areas, one for men and one for women. While it is important that they be separated, they may utilize the same kitchen and rooms for show-up, for fingerprinting and photographing, and for the examination and treatment of prisoners, when the small size of the department makes such a combination desirable. When a room serves both areas, provision should be made for (1) separate doors from each area equipped with windows and speaking panels; (2) the door to the women's area equipped with a lock operative only from the matron's side; (3) a regulation to forbid entry through one door while the other is unlocked; and (4) a gong within the room to sound an alarm automatically should the regulation be ignored by having both doors unlocked simultaneously.

Jail requirements for women prisoners differ in some respects from those for men. It is more frequently desirable to permit visitors to be in the same room with the woman prisoner, as when husbands and children call. The woman's area is frequently used as shelter for distressed women and for the care of children. These facts and the cost of building an entrance through the booking room may justify a separate entrance to the women's jail, especially since the facilities do not need to be as breakproof as those for men. Structural limitations of the building also sometimes necessitate a separate entrance.

A separate entrance into the women's area will be used to admit women prisoners to jail except when there is a separate entry for women prisoners through a passageway leading from the booking room. The vulnerability of the matron's quarters to attack in an attempted jail delivery must be recognized and safeguarded by suitable alarms when an entrance door

that she controls enables entry into the women's jail without going through the booking room.

Jail-area Keys. The jail areas should be so designed that a prisoner who overpowers the jailer and takes the keys from him cannot escape, except through the booking room, where someone should be on constant duty to operate the electric lock on the outer door. Keys to all locks in each jail area should be carried on two rings of a color to distinguish one from the other readily and of a size to permit slipping over the arm for ease in carrying. This size also prevents the jailer from inadvertently carrying the keys from the building at the end of his tour of duty. One ring should contain only keys to doors leading to the show-up room, the court holdover rooms, and the emergency door; the second ring should carry all other jail keys. The latter ring is the one ordinarily carried by the jailer; should he be overpowered and these keys taken from him, the prisoners could not escape from jail except through the booking-room door. The other key ring should be taken into jail only when prisoners are to be shown or taken to court or during emergency and then by a sufficient staff to minimize the possibility of prisoners overpowering them and taking the keys that permit release from the jail area without going through the booking room. Key rings should be left in the possession of the booking officer when not needed by the jailer. Separate key rings should be provided for the women's jail.

Jail-area Partitions and Doors. The partitions separating the jail areas from other spaces in the building should be of breakproof, reinforced concrete construction. The connecting doors, *i.e.*, to the passageways to the court and the show-up room, and the emergency entrance, should likewise be breakproof doors. If the emergency entrance opens into a public space, the door should have neither window nor speaking panel and it should be concealed by a door similar to others in the public area.

Walls of the passageways to the show-up room and the court and walls of the court holdover rooms, that would lead into an officer-occupied area if broken through, need not be of breakproof construction. The same is true of the doors leading from the holdovers into the courtroom. They should, however, be sufficiently sturdy to assure both time and noise in the breaking process.

Lights above and on the jail side of the doors leading from the jail areas into the passageways to the courtroom holdovers should be arranged to burn continuously, except when the door leading from the holdover into the courtroom is unlocked, in order to warn against placing prisoners in the holdover when the door has been inadvertently left unlocked by the bailiff. There is no need for a door between these two at the point where the passageway opens into the holdover.

Booking Room. The booking room serves as an entry into the jail area, a convenient space for the control of the prisoner during search and booking, and a temporary point of detention for the prisoner while awaiting (1) booking, (2) arrival of the jailer, (3) consideration of the case by the commanding officer, (4) arrival of an officer to interrogate the prisoner, and (5) arrival of an officer to transfer the prisoner to some other place.

The booking-room specifications should assure adequate space to accommodate the maximum number of prisoners that are usually brought in at one time. There should be no loose articles of furniture or moldings that may be wrenched from their moorings; benches, bolted to the floor and walls, should be of such sturdy construction as to make impossible fashioning a weapon by tearing off a leg or plank. There should be no light switches on the walls, and the lighting fixtures should be placed beyond the reach of prisoners. The floors should be of easily cleaned and durable material. A booking counter should be constructed at which the booking clerk, separated from the prisoner by a sturdy metal grill, may record the arrest data by typewriter and receive the prisoner's property through a suitable space between the counter and the grill. Booking-room doors of sturdy construction, but not of jail type, should consist of (1) an outer door through which the prisoners enter, located in the view of the booking clerk and equipped with an electric lock controlled by him, and (2) doors leading into each of the jail areas, equipped with simple locks operated by keys on the jailer's rings. Mirrors may be used to enable the booking officer to identify persons seeking entrance with minimum inconvenience.

Location of Booking Room. The location of the booking room is influenced by four considerations arranged here in the order of their importance: (1) Passageways should lead to the jail areas. (2) The booking room should adjoin the records office. (3) It should be near the building entrance through which the prisoners are brought. (4) It should be conveniently located for operating personnel who may call for prisoners in order to interrogate them. Limitations in possible office arrangements, in available space, and in the building structure itself may make impossible the complete satisfaction of all these considerations; the most desirable compromise must then be effected.

Passageway from Booking Room to Jail. The passageways from the booking room into the jail areas should afford no escape opportunity, even though the jailer be overpowered and his keys taken from him. Location of the jail on an upper floor to minimize the escape hazard will necessitate the use of an elevator, the door of which should open directly into the booking room. Separate elevators are most desirable

for each jail area, but reasons of economy may dictate the installation of one elevator to serve both areas. This may be done, with suitable precautions against women prisoners being carried in the elevator in the absence of a woman member of the force, providing the jail area for women does not have a separate entrance controlled by the matron. When the matron has a separate entrance, joint use of the elevator should be avoided, because desperate criminals might break custody at the point of diversion of women prisoners and escape through this entrance. Instead, women prisoners should be walked upstairs or transported in a public elevator, except the unmanageable drunks who may, in the custody of women members of the force, be taken from the men's area into the women's jail through one of the rooms serving both areas.

Booking Room Adjoining Records Office. It is desirable that the booking room be in juxtaposition to the records office so that (1) a records clerk at a post requiring 24-hour service may serve as a booking officer, thus conserving man power, (2) search of records before release of prisoner may be expedited, and (3) the registration of the arrest in the records system may be facilitated. A grouping of tasks of recording complaints and arrests in the records-office layout, as previously described (see Chap. 14), has advantages that justify this arrangement, except where structural limitations of the building make it impossible.

Booking Room Near Vehicle Entrance. The booking room should be located so that the prisoner, when brought to headquarters, will be walked a minimum distance through an area shielded from public view and offering minimum escape opportunities through exits and windows. Satisfaction of this condition suggests a location removed from the front of the building; the public is then shielded from the incident, and the shortest transfer distance is thus provided because prisoners are frequently brought by vehicle into the garage, which is usually housed in the back part of the building.

In a large department where prisoners are brought by vehicle into a basement garage and taken by elevator to the jail located on an upper floor, the booking room may be located at either end of the elevator shaft. The choice should be based on the suitability of the location for the performance of fill-in duties. The jail area usually affords maximum opportunity for the performance of other tasks during slack periods. However, the booking officer located at a suitably situated elevator entrance may provide a general supervision of the garage when the maintenance crew is off duty. This is especially important when 24-hour trusty labor is used for battery changes, tire repairs, and other services. If the upper location is selected, the elevator would not be a part of the jail area and should be of the self-service type.

Availability for Interrogation. The availability of the booking room to officers who call for prisoners for interrogation is obviously desirable. This convenience can be arranged in another way when only a partition separates the court holdover, or the passageway to it, and the quarters used by interrogation officers, or a nearby area under suitable supervision, to lessen the possibility of a break. The two areas may be joined by a door whose security should be signaled by a light in the previously described manner.

Rooms for Interrogation and Drunk Testing. In addition to interview rooms for the use of all members of the force, a room is needed for the lie-detector operator. Particular attention must be given to the acoustical and attention-distracting properties of the interrogation room and to the elimination of characteristics suggestive of police and jail. The interrogation room should have an observation window with a mirrored-glass surface to prevent occupants of the interrogation room from seeing the observer. The observation room should contain sound equipment to enable the monitoring and recording of conversation when desired. For this reason it may also serve as the central control point for monitoring conversations picked up by the previously mentioned microphones. It should also be equipped for recording interrogations on sound motion pictures.

The location of the interrogation room should permit ready availability from jail, preferably without the necessity of transferring the prisoner through space that is outside the jail area.

There is also need for a room in which drivers who have been drinking may be examined. Its preferred location is adjoining the booking room, although space limitations may necessitate establishing it some distance away. Since a motion-picture camera is also useful in recording tests of drunkenness, there are advantages in having the above-mentioned observation room of sufficient size to permit drunk tests with a line for the subject to walk and a background of a clock, a calendar, and clearly marked vertical lines to make apparent any off-balance of the suspect.

Circular Stairs. When the jail area is separated by one floor from the courtroom, the show-up room, or the booking room, circular iron stairs are sometimes useful as connecting passageways.

Detention, Service, and Operating Facilities. As the jailer advances through succeeding doors into the jail area, each door should bring him into a space of greater security than the previous one. The first space should contain the fingerprint room, the physician's room, and the kitchen that serve both the men's area and the women's area. The next should contain rooms that serve only one jail area, such as the store and other utility rooms, the prisoner's side of the visiting room, and doors leading

to the cell blocks, passageways to the court and show-up room, trusties' quarters, padded cells, and quarters for drunks, when they are not within the cell blocks proper. The final space contains the cell blocks with their separate cells, shower facilities, and inspection corridors.

Cells for serious offenders should be provided in both the men's and women's areas, and some should be arranged, by isolation and sound-proofing, for holding prisoners so that they cannot communicate with each other. Push buttons to operate alarms at the booking counter should be installed in each cell block and in the trusty quarters, because it proves disconcerting for prisoners locked in cells to watch a fellow prisoner commit suicide and be unable to stop him or summon assistance. Regulations should require that a trusty, or other prisoner not held on a serious charge, be kept in an unlocked cell in each cell block to press the alarm button in the event of emergency.

Drunk cells should be constructed and equipped to facilitate maintaining them in a sanitary condition and to lessen the hazard of drunken fights and falls. To these ends drunk tanks should be avoided, and a sufficient number of separate cells should be provided to accommodate the usual number of drunks, with facilities for increasing the number of occupants when necessary by confining together those not likely to become embroiled in altercations. Bunks for drunks should be not more than a foot from the floor to lessen the likelihood of injury to a prisoner who rolls out of his bed. A suitable drain should be provided to enable flushing the bunks and floor with a hose.

The women's jail should contain, in addition to cells for drunken and more serious offenders, small bedrooms where women prisoners with children-in-arms and less serious offenders may be held and where distressed women may be provided temporary lodging. Facilities should likewise be provided for holding juvenile offenders in jurisdictions where this practice is not forbidden by law. The segregated accommodations for boys and girls should be completely separated from the cells and rooms for adult women.

The use of bars and other jail accouterments should be avoided as far as possible in the small bedrooms in the women's jail and in the juvenile quarters, although they must be escape-proof and reasonably breakproof, especially in the case of the quarters for boys.

Design for Handling Property. Space should be arranged in the police building for a table, located in a position out of public view near the entrance through which most property will be brought, where a supply of wrapping paper, string, and labels will be available for packaging and labeling of property brought to headquarters. Provision should also be made for the 24-hour receipt of property by the records office through

a desirably positioned booking or information clerk and for its safe storage until called for by the property clerk. Spaces of adequate size and suitable security are likewise needed for its prolonged storage. Safe-deposit, or similar, boxes, with a key to be taken by businessmen who may wish to store currency overnight or over a week end, enable a service with minimum police responsibility.

Bulky articles of relatively small value, such as bicycles, cannot be readily handled by the records office in the manner described above. A room near the wrapping table and with a door that can be unlocked by a call-box key should be arranged for their temporary storage pending daily removal to other storerooms by the property clerk. This room may also be used for the storage of such emergency operating equipment as lanterns, barricades, traffic signs on stanchions, and rope with supporting stanchions.

The size of storerooms for department supplies and equipment must be based on the quantities to be kept on hand, and their locations should be convenient to the persons who use them or have custody of them. For example, office supplies should be kept in the records-office layout, and parts for the repair and supplies for the maintenance of radios, vehicles, buildings, parking meters, and signs, signals, and markings should be kept in the spaces provided for maintenance.

LOCATION OF POLICE OFFICES

First consideration in the design of the police building should be given to the location of the records and communications facilities because they are the central nervous system of the department organization. After their location has been tentatively decided, effort should be made to group the operating offices around them in a manner to provide maximum convenience. This will require some rearrangement of the tentative building plan; compromises must be made, but the principles that have been discussed should be adhered to as far as possible.

The patrol lieutenant or other officer commanding headquarters operations should have an office accessible to the public and at the same time adjacent to the dispatcher for ready consultation in questionable cases and for direction in emergencies.² The location of the detective quarters should be influenced by the fact that detectives make most frequent use of records-office services. The patrol-division squad-room location will be influenced by the desirability of having a show-up room within it and by the availability of space for lining up patrolmen for inspection

²The platoon commander's responsibilities in supervising radio broadcasts are discussed in Chap. 3.

at roll call and for adjoining locker and report-writing rooms. The traffic-division location will be influenced by the fact that its varied activities require considerable floor space. The vice and juvenile divisions should be located so that persons may call at their offices with minimum contact with the rest of the police organization. Lavatory facilities, a large mirror, and a locker for each member, with space for additions, should be provided in each division.

From a functional viewpoint the location of the chief's quarters is not so important. It should have a reception room and be reasonably accessible to the public and convenient to his staff. It should be large enough to seat all officers above the rank of sergeant, or a separate conference room should be provided.

Assembly rooms and classrooms should be on the less desirable upper floors. Provision should be made for police training, for youth activities such as junior traffic patrol, junior safety councils, and bicycle-riding schools, for traffic-violator schools, and for public meetings.

Pressroom. An office, preferably out of public view but conveniently located in relation to the records office, should be provided for the use of press representatives and furnished with typing tables, telephones, and a loud-speaker for monitoring police radio broadcasts.

Police Laboratory. The location of the laboratory in the police building is relatively unimportant, and some advantages are gained in having it in an out-of-the-way spot. Space requirements and utility connections are the principal considerations; space requirements are strongly influenced by the size of the laboratory staff and the equipment used. The laboratory should be designed to meet future requirements, especially in departments that have not yet developed their potential laboratory needs through suitable operating procedures.

Separate rooms should be provided in the laboratory for (1) the dark-room, (2) copying and other laboratory photographic work, (3) chemical examinations, (4) the use of other laboratory instruments, (5) the storage of evidence, (6) a museum in which standards for comparison and evidence in cases that have been disposed of are stored, (7) an office for the director, and (8) a reception room.

Target Range. The size and shape of the target range are such that its installation in the police building may interfere with an otherwise desirable arrangement of the facilities. The need for convenient and efficient police operations manifestly comes ahead of the need for a target range located within the police building. Effort should be made to place the range within the headquarters building, however, because of the advantages derived from this convenient location. Suitable precautions must be taken in the selection of its location and in its design, to minimize

distraction from the noise and danger from wild shots. Suitable illumination should be provided, and the range should be equipped with retractable targets and a system of moving targets. Shooting booths should have bulletproof partitions, and boiler plate should be placed at points on the walls, floor, and ceiling where stray bullets might jeopardize life or property. An out-of-doors range should also be provided.

Gun Cabinets. Cabinets for storing weapons, such as shotguns, rifles, submachine guns, gas guns, and bulletproof shields, should be located at a point passed by police officers as they leave headquarters on receipt of a report of a bank robbery or other crime requiring such weapons. The cabinet doors should have electric locks operated from a post that has 24-hour service and clear view of the cabinet.

Police Garage. The police garage should be either in the rear portion, in the basement, or adjacent to the headquarters building. It should be of adequate size to house all police vehicles, with additional space for the private cars of some of the commanding officers, to store tires and spare parts, and to accommodate facilities for mechanical and tire repairs, battery charging, and car greasing and washing. Special attention should be given to the arrangement of service facilities to assure minimum delay in this operation. Provision should be made, in large departments, for more than one line of vehicles to be serviced simultaneously. In departments that use trusties for service jobs, a room should be provided so that they may rest and be out of the way during slack periods at night when they are kept on call at the garage.

Other Maintenance. The need for servicing vehicle radios makes it desirable that the radio shop be located adjacent to or within the garage. The location of space for the storage of parts and supplies and for the maintenance of traffic devices (signs, signals, markings, and meters) is not important except for two points: (1) A convenient location in the police building assures better supervision and a more ready use of trusty labor, and (2) a location near the garage and radio shop enables a more useful interchange of services.

Room must also be provided for the storage of supplies and equipment for building maintenance and service.

Chapter 17

POLICE EQUIPMENT

The quality of police service and the success of many police operations are dependent on the suitability of equipment. Transportation and communication needs are especially urgent if motorized criminals are to be dealt with decisively; the use of these devices is also an economy since they increase the effectiveness of police man power. Attention must likewise be given to armaments and to laboratory and office equipment and to the equipment needs of the men.

POLICE VEHICLES

The relative suitability of the automobile, the three-wheeled motorcycle, and the two-wheeled motorcycle for patrol and the advantages of the conspicuously marked patrol car have been discussed in Chap. 6. What was said in reference to general patrol applies with equal force to traffic patrol. Two-wheeled motorcycles should not be used, but instead, three-wheeled motorcycles should be used to their full capacity in traffic control in congested areas, and they should be conspicuously marked.

The Police Automobile. Protection from cold and inclement weather and the greater safety in accidents provided by the steel top makes the enclosed automobile better suited for general police purposes than the open or convertible type despite the greater observation scope in a car with the top down. The coach type of body is usually less expensive than the sedan, it provides fewer obstructions to driver view than either the coupé or sedan, and it offers less opportunity for prisoner escape from the back seat than a sedan. The coupé has the further disadvantage of limited seating capacity for transporting other officers and prisoners.

A car in the lower price class is economical in operation and maintenance, especially in the cost of body repairs necessitated by collisions, and is otherwise best suited for police service. Its usually shorter wheel base permits greater maneuverability, its lighter weight usually permits faster acceleration, and its lower cost enables the operation of a larger number of vehicles at the same expenditure and also makes more frequent replacement possible.

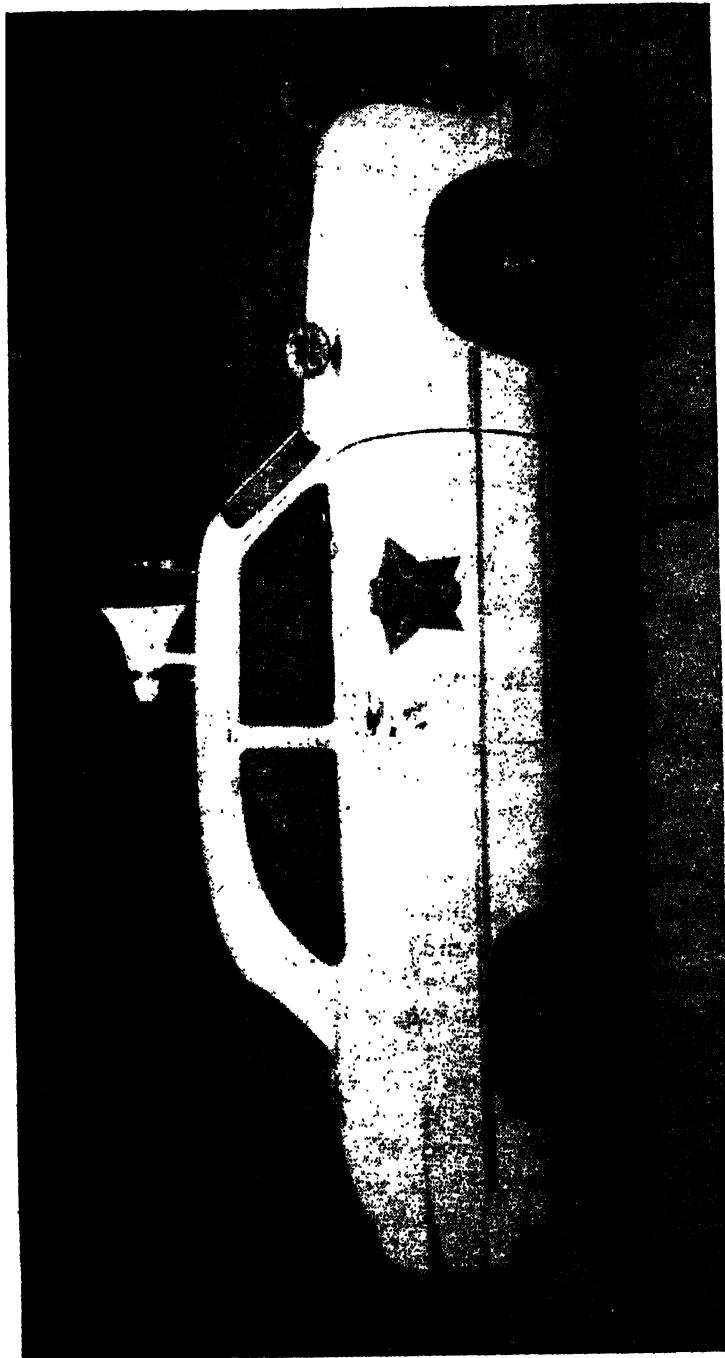


Fig. 1. Modern, conspicuously marked patrol car, showing police light mounted on the side.

Patrol-car Accessories. Automobiles used for general and traffic patrol should be conspicuously marked and should be furnished with accessories for the convenience and comfort of the driver and to establish their identity as emergency vehicles. All police vehicles should be designated by department number which should be stenciled near the gasoline filler cap and under the hood to facilitate recording the service given to each.

Police cars in most jurisdictions must be equipped with a siren to qualify as an emergency vehicle. A powerful red light, preferably of the blinking type, should be installed in a position where its effectiveness will not be impaired at night by the glare of the headlights.

A floodlight with a frosted lens bearing in red letters the words "Police Stop" should be mounted just in front of the front right door, level with the steering wheel, and with the lens parallel to the side of the car, as shown in the photograph on the opposite page. In stopping another vehicle, when the police car is placed in such a position that this light is even with the driver of the other car, three advantages are gained: (1) The identity of the police car is clearly and definitely established; (2) when equipped with a sufficiently powerful bulb, the light prevents the occupants of the stopped car from observing how many police officers there are and what they are doing; and (3) it illuminates the interior of the stopped car, thereby making suspicious movements of the occupants more easily detected.

A small spotlight with a flexible cord to be plugged into an outlet on the dash of the police car is a useful hand light for illuminating alleyways, back yards, and other places requiring some attention but not justifying an actual shaking of a door at that time. This light, operated on the car battery, provides more powerful illumination and a longer range than a dry-cell flashlight.

Police automobiles should be equipped with identical ignition, door, trunk-compartment, and gun-rack locks. Each officer assigned a vehicle may then be given one set of keys which will operate any lock on any police automobile. This arrangement eliminates the inconvenience of delivering keys to relieving officers and the annoyance which results when an officer inadvertently leaves headquarters with the keys on his person.

In some jurisdictions police cars should be equipped with efficient heaters and devices for defrosting windshields during the cold-weather season. Chains also must be provided in some jurisdictions, but they should be stored in the police garage and the officers should be directed by radio when to put them on and take them off. A fire extinguisher should also be a part of the patrol-car equipment.

Police cars should be provided with facilities for making notes. For this purpose a clip board to hold on the long side a pad of 8- by 5-inch sheets makes a convenient rack for the officer in recording information received by radio. Convenient view of the board is assured by bolting it to the cowl at, or slightly above, the level of the lower edge of the windshield and sloping it slightly from the horizontal. A suitably placed dash light may be installed to illuminate the board. If the automobile does not have a dome light advantageously located, one should be installed sufficiently forward to permit the driver to make entries in his notebook without interference from the shadow of his hand.

A series of properly sized pouches, like pockets in an apron, made of Fabrikoid material and tacked to the inside of the driver's compartment just to the left and above the pedal creates a convenient device for carrying a supply of traffic tickets and other forms to be used in citing offenders, warning inadvertent violators, providing information to citizens, and otherwise meeting the needs of service.

Each patrol car should be supplied with a small first-aid kit, the principal item of which is a tourniquet which may be applied while awaiting the arrival of an ambulance. The immediate ambulance service available in most communities usually makes unnecessary and somewhat undesirable more intensive first aid by the officer.

The Number of Police Automobiles. The number of automobiles necessary to meet the requirements of service will be determined by three factors: (1) the number required during the hours of maximum need for patrol, which is in the late afternoon and evening; (2) flexibility of assignment, which will assist in meeting this need by the use, during the peak period, of vehicles assigned during other times to a different purpose; and (3) the requirement for spares, influenced by the promptness of repair and maintenance service.

Conspicuously marking police cars diminishes the flexibility of their assignment because a need exists for some vehicles that are not distinguishable from private automobiles, especially in vice and some detective and juvenile investigations. The advantages of greater flexibility in assignment justify a careful scrutiny of demands for cars that are not conspicuously marked. An honest appraisal of the need will frequently reveal that it is not genuine, especially when the identity of the inconspicuously marked car is established by red light, siren, radio antenna, and license plates that reveal its public ownership.

Maximum flexibility of assignment is assured when it has been demonstrated that conspicuously marking the cars does not interfere with most police services. Then automobiles used during the daytime by detective

and other members of the force may be impressed into patrol service to meet the maximum need during peak periods.

In the event a heavy need for patrol cars arises 1 hour before the end of the day tour of duty for detectives, it may be met by reassigning some detectives' cars to the patrol division at that hour. The detectives who lose their vehicles before the end of their shift should schedule their work so that they may spend their hour without a car to greatest advantage at headquarters.

Police vehicles should be stored in the police garage at night to ensure against public scandal over the improper use of them during off-duty time. When so stored, they are also available to meet unusual needs.

Ownership of Police Automobiles. Police cars may be rented from the officers who drive them, in which case the vehicle is used on only one tour of duty and exclusively by its owner. This plan has several advantages: (1) During emergencies vehicles are then available to provide transportation or motorized patrol by every officer. (2) The department is relieved of repair and service problems. (3) An officer is not subjected to the dirt left by the previous driver or his dog. (4) It enables an officer more easily to own a private car, because fair remuneration includes part of the overhead cost of ownership.

The disadvantages of privately owned vehicles outweigh the advantages, however. (1) Vehicles cannot be easily marked in a conspicuous or even in a distinctive manner satisfactory to the owner, and the use of conspicuously or distinctively marked privately owned vehicles for private purposes would have an unfavorable public reaction. (2) The cost of purchasing, installing, and maintaining accessory equipment, such as radio, sirens, and police lights, becomes a heavy expense for the department when the number of pieces is more than doubled because of the larger number of cars. (3) The carrying of department-owned armaments and other removable equipment is a problem. Either double the number of pieces must be purchased and maintained, or they must be transferred from automobile to automobile at the end of each shift. (4) The patrol may not be so intensive, and driving risks sometimes necessary when pursuing a criminal or suspect may not be taken by the owner. (5) The department can usually own and operate patrol cars at a lower cost than must be paid for rental.

Patrol cars may be rented from a dealer, in which case the department has exclusive use and all the advantages of department ownership apply. The factors to be considered in such an arrangement are (1) the rental cost as compared to depreciation, maintenance, and operating costs of department-owned equipment; (2) the quality of service; and (3) convenience in terms of constant availability of equipment and minimum

delay in repairing and servicing as compared to that provided by a central municipal garage or a police repair shop. A rental plan has advantages for small departments lacking garage facilities. In the larger cities, however, department ownership and service are usually more economical.

Replacement of Police Vehicles. Police vehicles should be replaced frequently. Factors to be considered in determining the frequency of replacement are efficient and satisfactory operation, appearance, and cost of operation. The increased operating cost of worn-out equipment is the least important of these factors, and the police may be justified in replacement before reaching the point of minimum economical service. Dilapidated vehicles, which look inadequate or have a reputation for inefficiency arising from frequent breakdown and lack of success in chase, destroy public confidence and damage police morale. Unsatisfactory operation and appearance cause the driver to treat the equipment with less consideration, thus aggravating its unsatisfactory condition. Damage to public confidence and department morale may be too high a price to pay for mere economy of operation.

COMMUNICATIONS EQUIPMENT

Communications facilitate nearly all police operations, whether in the field or at headquarters. Rapid communication enables the immediate redeployment of the force to meet changed conditions, and it promotes the safety of the individual officer. The police administrator should examine carefully the communications requirements of his force and take steps to procure essential installations. He is concerned with communications between his headquarters and the public, other police agencies, his district stations, other police buildings, and his force in the field. He is also interested in communications between the several offices and other points within his headquarters. In reaching decisions, he must call upon specialists to help him in meeting his telephone, teletype, radio, signal, and other communications needs.

The Police Department Radio Transmitter. The merits of police radio are so well known as to require no comment here. The police administrator should obtain the services of a qualified radio engineer to advise him on the type, power output, and location of his transmitter and also on the location of receivers to pick up messages from mobile police transmitters for direct-line relay to headquarters.

The chief should insist on ascertaining to his own satisfaction the necessity of installing the transmitter at a location removed from headquarters. The expense of construction, building site, and added personnel should be avoided when possible. The spare time of radio staff during

slack periods cannot be utilized in the performance of nonradio duties when they are removed from headquarters. Their supervision is also more difficult. Radio technicians sometimes urge a location away from headquarters because it gives them greater independence and freedom from supervision, and the separate installation enhances their feeling of importance. The location of the radio transmitter is important to its most effective operation; the selection of a removed location, however, may not be justified by a slight improvement in transmission except when the equipment is operated by remote control.

Street Radio Equipment. The most important communications equipment for the policeman on the street is the radio. Two-way radio increases officer safety, permits immediate acknowledgement of broadcasts, and enables headquarters to receive promptly information needed in directing such field operations as the search for or chase of criminals (for radio dispatching, see pages 103-107). The walkie-talkie likewise has advantages in some field operations.

Advantages are gained by not having the car radio transmitters on the same frequency as the main headquarters transmitter. Officers in their cars are less distracted when they hear only the headquarters broadcast and are not forced to listen to broadcasts from other cars. This arrangement eliminates intercar transmission and thus avoids a temptation to use the radio unnecessarily and eliminates any question as to authority. The danger that a street officer may attempt to give orders is eliminated when only the headquarters dispatcher is able to transmit messages to the street. Also, this arrangement prevents interference by a car transmitter during an important broadcast.

A call selector enables the dispatcher to actuate the horn or a signal light mounted on the top of the police vehicle by simply dialing a number. This arrangement makes it possible to summon an officer who may have left his automobile to perform nearby inspectional duties or to patrol on foot in the immediate vicinity of his car. An amber signal light on the police vehicle assures maximum ease in observing the signal in the daylight, and it is also suitable in the dark. Such equipment promotes activities by the officer on foot some distance from his vehicle and consequently increases the effectiveness of his patrol.

Street Telephone Communications. Even with two-way radio there remains a sufficient need for telephone communication with headquarters to justify the cost of installation and maintenance of call boxes. The use of the call box establishes the location of the officer at that time, a feature lacking today in radio communications. In addition, it provides greater secrecy in communication. Further, a radio broadcast requires the initial attention of the patrolman, even though it is not directed to

him and consequently the somewhat diminished radio traffic distraction obtained by the use of the call box for some police communications increases patrol efficiency.

Call boxes installed and maintained by the telephone company as stations on the police telephone switchboard eliminate maintenance and operating problems for the police, and the rental is usually less than the initial and maintenance cost of a private wire system. The automatic recording on a tape of the time and location of origin of each call, although desirable, is not essential; these facts should be recorded by the telephone switchboard operator.

Call boxes provide an important safety factor: The whereabouts of an officer who fails to call at the assigned hour, with a reasonable period of grace, may be investigated; a critically injured officer may thus be found and treatment given while there is still time to save his life. Call boxes also aid in the supervision of the street force; study of the location of boxes used by the officer sometimes reveals information relating to the manner in which he patrols his beat, a helpful factor to the patrol sergeant in detecting and correcting improper practices.

Call boxes should be installed at points selected on the basis of providing greatest use, such as locations on a beat boundary where it may be used by two officers or on a beat corner where perhaps three or four officers may use it, and of assuring greater attention to a high-hazard area by placing it on a main thoroughfare or at a location near which many complaints originate. Since the call box is particularly useful to the foot patrolman, special attention should be given to the selection of locations on foot beats.¹

The use of public pay telephones is satisfactory and the automatic return of the coin on all calls to the police department is provided in many communities. However, telephone stations are not usually found in the outlying sections of the community. The use of telephones in commercial establishments during business hours is not desirable because of inconvenience to the officer and lack of secrecy. The regular use of business telephones also disturbs the merchant and his staff; it may interfere with the business use of the instrument, especially for incoming messages, and if it be a metered service, an unfair burden is placed on him. The practice of an officer carrying the key to a business house in order to have access to a telephone is to be condemned because temptations are thereby created and the officer is immediately suspected if any irregularity is discovered by the proprietor.

¹ The desirability of decentralizing call-box control among district stations is discussed in Chap. 18.

Visual and Audible Recalls. Visual² and audible recall systems, essential to efficient operation before the adoption of police radio, continue to have some utility. Their use assures a more constant attention to duty since the officer must usually be on the street to observe a signal and a failure to respond is *prima-facie* evidence of lack of attention. Their use for this supervisory purpose alone, however, is ill-advised, especially when failure to respond is followed by disciplinary action; such practice tends to diminish attention to conditions of more fundamental importance in the accomplishment of the police purpose.

A recall system diminishes the need to use the radio for relatively unimportant messages in which speed is not essential; and when used in conjunction with radio broadcasts, it is useful in providing notice of the broadcast to the officer, which is important when an investigation or inspection has taken him beyond earshot of his car radio. Recalls continue indispensable in contacting and supervising foot patrolmen not equipped with radio.

The advantages to be gained at the cost of installing a new recall system, or extending a present one, must be judiciously weighed against advantages that may be derived by an equal expenditure for other purposes. Headquarters radio communication with all police vehicles and as many foot patrolmen as desired, found in most departments today, diminishes the need for a recall system.

Telephone Communications. Studies made by the telephone company will reveal department telephone trunk needs. Trunk requirements will influence a change from an ordinary telephone instrument to a key box, to a cordless switchboard, or to a cord switchboard, and from a single-position board to a multiple-position one.

A sufficient number of trunks should be installed to assure handling peak loads without using all of them. Department prestige suffers and its service is impaired when attempts to telephone the police are answered by busy signals. An adequate number of trunks enables the police to give immediate attention to each call. A smaller number is inexcusable.

The telephone company survey may reveal that the department operations have reached the critical point in expanded telephone volume where more expensive equipment of increased capacity must be provided. This may necessitate the relocation of the switchboard and the assignment of additional staff to handle the enlarged facilities. Substantial and expensive building changes may be required. When such extensive

² Amber signal lights are more readily visible than any other color during daylight and are also suitable during hours of darkness. When they are in such a distant location as not to be useful during daylight, red is more desirable than amber because of its attention-attracting quality.

changes do not seem timely because of the economic or political situation, the pressing need may be somewhat diminished by the installation of direct-line unlisted telephones in offices in which a large volume of traffic originates. Trunks restricted to outgoing and long-distance calls provide an economic advantage by relieving the load on more expensive ones. The day when the dispatcher is unable to handle the switchboard in addition to other duties may be postponed by relieving him of some outgoing calls. This arrangement also provides more free time for suitable records duties by the switchboard operator. Automatic dialing equipment provides maximum relief to the operator.

Each police office should contain a telephone instrument terminating on the switchboard, and the total number when combined with the street call boxes may exhaust the capacity of the board. This situation may be met by the installation of a key box in division quarters that have a secretary; if a key box is inadequate, a cordless board may be used for the transfer of division calls to the desired office. This arrangement also somewhat simplifies the main switchboard operation.

Expansion of operations for emergency or unusual needs is most satisfactorily provided by a multiple-position switchboard. A more economical expansion may be accomplished when the dispatcher is adjacent to the records office by having in it as many telephone instruments as there are trunks on the switchboard. Each telephone may then be plugged into a trunk and an operator assigned to each to handle all incoming calls. A runner may be used to transfer complaint information to the dispatcher.

When separated from the switchboard, the dispatcher should be tied to it by two or three lines terminating in a six- or nine-line key box that has from it lines to the detective division, the head of the patrol division, and two or more positions in the dispatch room, one being to a clerk to handle overflow calls. When two microphones and other facilities are provided for two dispatchers, as previously described (see Chap. 14), they should each have a key box installed as described above and tied together.

Interoffice Communications. Communications between offices at headquarters may be provided through stations off the main switchboard, through direct-line telephones, or through the type of desk transmitter that, by simply moving an office-selector switch and speaking into the instrument, automatically transmits the voice through a similar instrument on the selected desk. The use of stations off the main switchboard puts an added burden on the operator; the use of the last described instrument also has the advantage of speed. Interoffice communications needs should be appraised and suitable equipment installed.

Boards listing personnel by name or room and located at points visible to division heads and their secretaries and to the dispatcher are helpful in showing the availability of personnel. Their availability at headquarters may be indicated by a bank of lights on one side of the panel and their availability on the street through radio by a bank of lights on the other side. The lights should be operable from two positions, *i.e.*, a bank of switches in the dispatcher's office for all such signal lights throughout the building and smaller but similar banks of switches on the desks of the division secretaries for the division lights.³

One method of informing the dispatcher on the availability of patrolmen for assignment is to place immediately in front of him a series of city maps on each of which is outlined the patrol beats for one tour of duty. A small electric light in each beat, operated by a three-position switch to burn brightly or dimly or to be off, indicates that the officer on that beat is available for call, has been sent on a call, or is off the air. A simple control arrangement consists of a bank of as many switches as there are beats on the largest shift and enough additional switches to control a border panel of lights for officers in radio-equipped cars not assigned to beats (the commanding officers, patrol sergeants, special investigators, traffic officers, and detectives). Number one switch will operate the light on number one beat on each map, but by a simple switch arrangement only the light of the map for the current shift will operate.

Another method, which permits the use of a larger map, consists of a rack arrangement with a backboard containing a light for each beat on each shift. When the map for the current shift is placed in position, the lights on the backboard shine through half-inch round holes in the board on which the map is mounted, the holes being in positions immediately opposite beat lights on the backboard.

The availability of officers may be inexpensively shown by small bar magnets when the beat maps are mounted on sheet metal. The magnet may be placed on its base when the officer is available, on its side when he is sent on a call, and on its end when he is off the air.

Loud-speakers should be installed at strategic positions in the building; through them personnel may monitor radio broadcasts by operating a switch. The installation should be such that the dispatcher, by switch, may feed important broadcasts through the speakers without regard to the position of the switch at the speaker end. If desired, the speakers may, in addition, be arranged for voice transmission without reference

³ Discussion of the application of this method to district stations is found in Chap. 18.

to radio broadcasts and on a selective basis; this arrangement is useful in locating urgently needed personnel who are absent from their offices but are somewhere in the building. If preferred, buzzers or flashing lights strategically located throughout the building may be used to summon personnel by the assignment of code numbers.

Microphones concealed in cells, trusty quarters, visiting, interview, and interrogation rooms, and at other selected locations are another type of interoffice communication that should be provided in a police building. Special attention should be given to the selection of a central control position where conversations may be monitored and recorded. The position should be convenient to reach, and the entrance to it should not be visible to the public.

Other Communications Equipment. Teletype receivers and transmitters should be located in or adjacent to the records office, with the sound of their operation acoustically deadened. Teletype writers are invaluable in interstate, state-wide, and district-station networks. District stations should not be operated without teletype connection with headquarters.

Teletype also has important uses in a large police building. A teletypewriter used in the complaint room for the preparation of the daily bulletin and connected with divisional offices will supply each with several copies of the bulletin the moment that it is typed. Such use facilitates notification to officers of their assignments.

A telephone company engineer should appraise the department teletype needs and select suitable equipment to meet them.

Intercity radio communication and participation in the national radio network (especially when it involves the use of C.W. equipment and specially trained personnel assigned exclusively to these duties) should be examined critically from the point of view of cost of installation and operation in contrast to the value of its use to the local community that supports it.

POLICE ARMAMENTS AND UNIFORMS

The selection of suitable armaments and their correct use is important; on both may rest the lives of policemen and sometimes of innocent citizens as well. The police administrator should give attention to protective devices as well as to offensive weapons in arming his force.

The private ownership of articles used personally and exclusively by one officer, such as the sidearm, flashlight, whistle, and all items of wearing apparel, is more economical because greater care is taken in their use and maintenance, and consequently there is less waste than when such equipment is furnished by the department. Uniformity may

be assured by rigid adherence to department specifications, and proper maintenance by frequent inspection. The economy of quantity purchases may be effected by procuring the articles through the central municipal or police purchasing agent, the officers having a small sum deducted from their pay checks to meet the payments.

The Sidearm. The sidearm should be carried on a Sam Browne belt on the right side, sufficiently low to permit an easy draw. To draw a gun carried on the left side, the arm must cross the body in a position where it may be seized or pinned to the officer's body. In holding an opponent at arm's length or in straight-arming him, the officer naturally stands sideways with his right arm free for an easy draw. The holster should be supplied with a flap secured by a snap to protect the gun from the weather and to hold it more securely in position during a tumble or scuffle. For officers in plain clothes, a shoulder holster offers some advantages.

Pouches for handcuffs and extra ammunition should also be carried on the Sam Browne belt. The ratchet-type handcuff is the most suitable restraining device for the patrolman to carry. Each patrolman should have a two- or three-cell focusing flashlight; his notebooks should be of a size to fit easily into his uniform pocket.

The yawara stick is a substitute for the police club or baton that is now being adopted by increasing numbers of departments. Its primary purpose is to control rather than to hurt or seriously injure. It has the following advantages over a club: (1) The primary purpose of the yawara stick is to increase, by leverage, the manual force applied by the officer on a recalcitrant person, whereas the purpose of the club is to strike or jab. The strength of the stroke or jab is influenced by the strength and emotional state of the officer and is frequently not in proportion to the resistance being experienced or likely to be experienced; the blow is sometimes not sufficiently vigorous, and the police may then be bested; or it may be unreasonably severe, and the victim may then suffer serious injury. In contrast, the force applied manually should be, and nearly always is, in proportion to the resistance; the effect of the added force gained by the leverage of the yawara stick, therefore, is applied only in proportion to the resistance encountered. (2) The yawara stick can be carried at all times, inconspicuously and without inconvenience, on the person of a uniformed or plain-clothes officer and, because of its size, it is held inconspicuously in the hand, and consequently does not impress the citizen as a threat of force, nor does it give an impression of brutality. (3) The club may be wrested from the hand of the policeman and used against him, a serious disadvantage in mob control; whereas such action is nearly impossible with a yawara stick. (4) The

yawara stick may, when conditions require, be used to render a blow which, when knowingly applied, inflicts, with little danger of permanent injury, such severe pain as to render the subject nonresistant for some time. In contrast, blows by police clubs sometimes result in fractured skulls and other serious injuries. (5) Many departments do not train their officers in judo and yawara because of the physical injuries sustained by their members during training. An officer is not required to maintain top physical condition in order to be trained in the use of the yawara stick.

Should a club or police baton be used, it should be made a part of the patrol-car equipment and not carried by the patrolman when away from his car except when answering a call or on special assignment the nature of which indicates that such a weapon may be needed.

Standard specifications should be established, and all officers should be required to carry the regulation sidearm, even though the weapons are privately owned by the members of the department. The advantages of a regulation firearm are as follows: (1) Standard specifications assure weapons of suitable quality, caliber, and size. (2) Ammunition carried by each officer may be used in any gun, an important factor when the ammunition supply of one officer is exhausted under fire. (3) It is unnecessary for the department to stock more than one caliber of ammunition for sidearm service issue. (4) Greater accuracy is experienced when circumstances require one officer to fire the sidearm of another. (5) Fitting a holster to the sidearm is simplified, a factor in maintaining uniformity of appearance, even when the holsters are privately owned by the officers.

Revolver vs. Automatic. The sidearm carried by all police officers is the principal police weapon. The revolver is considered better suited to police service than the automatic pistol because it will not jam. The sidearm is not frequently and carefully cleaned, even in the best disciplined police forces, and the grit which accumulates may result in jamming an automatic weapon. Poorly disciplined forces sometimes carry ammunition which is defective because of age. A defective cartridge in an automatic may require some time to extract and to prepare the weapon for firing again, whereas a minimum time is lost in the case of a revolver. The automatic pistol, however, has advantages over the revolver. The cartridge clip has a greater capacity than the six shots in a revolver chamber, reloading by clip requires less time than placing six cartridges one at a time into the chamber of a revolver, the construction of the automatic pistol makes it less bulky to carry, and it fits the hand more readily.

The revolver should have a rigid frame because in hand-to-hand com-

bat the break or hinged frame may become unlatched. The rigid frame, especially when reinforced, withstands rougher treatment, as when it is dropped in a scuffle or used as a club.

The weight and bulk of the sidearm are factors to be considered in establishing the barrel length, the construction and size of the frame, and the caliber. A gun with a short barrel is more easily drawn than a longer weapon; it is also less bulky and less easily wrested from the hand in a struggle. For all ordinary field operations the diminished accuracy resulting from an inch or two shorter barrel is inconsequential; the barrel should therefore be from 4 to 5 inches long.

The Caliber. The shocking and penetrating powers of weapons are dependent on the caliber. The penetrating power is of importance because sidearms are frequently used by patrolmen against criminals in automobiles. In the revolver, the .38 special is the ideal caliber for all-around police service. In the automatic, the super .38 is usually considered superior to the .45 caliber because of its greater penetrating power. Few American police forces use a lighter caliber than the .38 special; in Middle Western states the .45 caliber is frequently the regulation sidearm, probably a carry-over from frontier days when the .45 caliber six-shooter was the favorite weapon because shocking power was then more important than penetration.

The .38 special magnum is an excellent police weapon under circumstances which demand long range and maximum penetrating power; consequently it is especially suited to rural patrol. However, such circumstances infrequently arise in cities, and the hazards created by the greater-than-necessary penetrating power and range and the disadvantages of weight, bulk, and cost make the magnum unsuited as a regulation sidearm for use in municipal departments.

Carrying the magnum loaded with regular cartridges and with magnum ammunition carried in a pouch for use under unusual conditions is unsatisfactory because of the time lost in changing the load. Loading the chamber with some magnum and some regulation ammunition is undesirable because under fire the officer is not likely to remember when the load changes from regulation to magnum and the calculations are upset if the cylinder is inadvertently turned. Officers should always carry the same load. A diminished accuracy results when high-powered charges are used interchangeably with low-powered and regulation ammunition.

The High-powered Rifle. The high-powered rifle is not a suitable weapon for general municipal patrol purposes because of its high penetrating power and long range and consequent danger from ricochet. The conditions of rural patrol, however, lessen the dangers to innocent per-

sons, and the long range makes it an essential weapon. Circumstances arise in city police operations also which make useful the high-powered rifle; barricaded criminals may be dislodged and fleeing criminals may be picked off with it from fire escapes and roof tops. Rifles should be a part of city police armaments, but they should be stored at headquarters rather than made a part of standard patrol equipment. All patrolmen should be trained in the use of the department-owned rifles, which should all be of the same make and model, and selected officers on each platoon should be given intensive and continuous training in order to be specially qualified for accurate shooting with this weapon.

The Riot Gun. The 12-gauge shotgun with an 18- to 20-inch barrel, sometimes called a riot gun, is the ideal auxiliary weapon for patrol. The pump gun is more reliable than the automatic because it is less likely to jam. The barrel should not be merely sawed off, but it should be of factory construction in order to assure a satisfactory pattern.

The advantages of the riot gun over the submachine gun are: (1) Untrained officers are more accustomed and hence have greater skill in the use of the shotgun than the submachine gun. (2) Less training in the use of the shotgun is needed by most officers to make them good shots. (3) The shotgun pattern is usually better than one made by a machine-gun burst of an equal number of pellets. The recoil and climbing action of the machine gun interfere with its accuracy. (4) The spread of the shot makes the riot gun effective without accurate aim, an especially valuable feature in the dark. (5) The limited range of the shotgun makes its use on city streets less hazardous.

The riot gun should be carried in a rack above the left door of the patrol car and in a rainproof container with a hinged lid attached to the cover of the box on the three-wheeled motorcycles. The guns may be locked into position if desired, in which event the key should be attached to the ignition key so that the gun may be removed, if necessary, whenever the vehicle is used.

Damp weather, frequent loading and unloading of the weapon, and the jolting to which the cartridges in the magazine are subjected, especially on the three-wheeled motorcycle, result in the ends of the cartridges swelling, thus jamming the gun. Because of this, frequent inspection should be made of the ammunition, and at intervals all ammunition which has been carried should be taken out of service and used in trap-shooting practice. The hazard of ammunition thus rendered defective is lessened by using cartridges the cases of which have been specially treated and the end fitted with a fiber plug to protect the crimp.

The Submachine Gun. The .45 caliber submachine gun is not considered a particularly valuable police weapon except for its public rela-

tions value. The criminal, the riotous mob, and the general public have a greater respect for this weapon than it deserves, probably because they fear the unknown and practically none of them is familiar with its appearance and operation. Also, the Thompson submachine gun, now no longer being manufactured, is a strange- and formidable-looking gun which has been highly publicized.

The submachine gun has these disadvantages: (1) Persons, even though familiar with the operation of rifles and shotguns, must be trained in its operation. (2) It is not a suitable substitute for the rifle on the single shot because it is not accurate nor has it the range or penetrating power. (3) On the full automatic it is not a suitable substitute for the riot gun because it is less accurate and its range is too great for firing on city streets. (4) It quickly exhausts the ammunition contained in clip (12 or 20 rounds) or drum (50 or 100 rounds) with less effectiveness than an equal number of slugs fired by a riot gun.⁴ (5) It is an expensive weapon costing more than a riot gun.

Gas Equipment. Gas rifles and gas grenades are useful in dislodging barricaded criminals, but infrequency of need makes them unnecessary as a part of the standard equipment for each patrolman. They should be available at headquarters, and in larger cities a locked case (with key attached to the ignition key) containing a gas rifle and an adequate supply of shells and grenades and two gas masks may be made a part of the equipment regularly carried in the automobiles of the patrol sergeants and special investigators. The gas shells should be of the long-range projectile type for operation against barricaded criminals. The short-range shells, which discharge an instantaneous gas cloud, are useful in stopping a small group of rioters but they are of little value in dealing with criminals. Grenades thrown through windows, however, are effective.

Protective Devices. Armored shields and vests are useful armaments, the need for which likewise arises so infrequently as not to justify including them in standard patrol equipment. The potential value of these devices is so great, however, that they should be available at headquarters, in the patrol sergeant's automobile, and as a part of the equipment carried by the special investigators.

The folding bullet-resisting shield, formed by three hinged pieces of laminated steel which, when unfolded, may be carried like the buckler used by the ancient knight-errant, has advantages over the vest. Being of solid steel it inspires greater confidence in the person who carries it, and likewise destroys confidence in the criminal. It may be picked

⁴ A 12-gauge shotgun cartridge contains 12 pellets of "0" buckshot, and 9 pellets of "00" buckshot.

up and used and easily discarded when the need has passed. Since it is more convenient to put in operation and less hampering in use, officers are more likely to use it. It covers a larger part of the body, and a bulletproof window permits a view without exposing the head. It is also less expensive and is practically indestructible.

The enforcement of department regulations requiring the use of the shield in raids against armed criminals will discourage foolhardy officers who, in a spirit of bravado, spurn such equipment and consequently discourage its use by more rational men under circumstances which clearly warrant these precautions.

Bandit fire at motorized patrol officers is not sufficiently frequent to justify armor plate or bulletproof windshields on patrol automobiles. Armored trucks, however, are useful in attacks on bandit hide-outs. Such equipment enables the police to drive with safety within range of bandit guns for the purpose of discharging gas into the building or for returning gunfire from an advantageous position. Arrangements for the use of armored express trucks should be made with firms owning such equipment, and the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of the proprietors or drivers should be on file at headquarters.

The Police Uniform. The uniform worn by patrolmen is an important item of equipment because it influences the prestige of the service and the morale of the department. The *esprit de corps* of the organization is improved when the men wear snappy, good-looking uniforms. On the other hand it is difficult to build pride in an organization when patrolmen, because of ill-fitting, poorly adapted dress, give an air of slovenliness. The appearance of patrolmen is reflected in their attitude, and when their uniforms lend an air of dignity and action, the men automatically tend to develop these traits. The reaction on the public is just as great. The snappier the uniform, the more dignity it lends the officer, and the better he appears in his dress, the greater the respect he will command.

Police uniforms should be distinctive to avoid confusion with those of any other service and to assure recognition by the stranger. Traffic officers should wear the same uniform as the members of the patrol division. Uniforms should not be gaudy; the colors used should not be vivid or strongly contrasting.

The individual officer wearing the uniform constantly is concerned with its serviceability and comfort. Material of suitable quality assures serviceability and improves the appearance of the garment. Comfort and convenience demand that a uniform coat permit quick, easy movements. Raising the hands over the head or stretching forward cause a poorly designed uniform coat to pull up from under the Sam Browne belt making

necessary the readjustment of the coat and belt. A bi-swing back and pleats in the armpits obviate this annoyance and allow a freedom of movement without a feeling of restriction, an advantage also provided by the waist-length jacket.

In winter the uniform must be warm but not cumbersome. Winter overcoats should permit freedom of movement, and they should be worn with a Sam Browne belt on the outside so that the gun will be readily accessible.

In summer the uniform should be light and cool, and the coat may be dispensed with provided the shirt is of military cut and of material that holds its press. This practice requires careful supervision to prevent policemen from reporting for duty in soiled and wrinkled shirts. Sun helmets offer advantages in hot climates.

Hot, tight-fitting riding boots and puttees worn with breeches are uncomfortable but suitable for motorcycle service, especially during slushy winter weather when slack trousers cannot be kept well pressed. For automobile patrol, however, slack trousers are preferred for year-round use, with galoshes for winter weather.

OFFICE, LABORATORY, EMERGENCY, AND SPECIAL EQUIPMENT

The selection of office furniture and equipment should be based on the appearance, durability, comfort, and suitability to purpose of the article. Chairs receive hard usage and should be selected with a view to years of service. Aluminum chairs have the advantage of durability and light weight; if the cost is prohibitive, steel ones may be selected instead. Typing and desk chairs should be selected to assure efficient posture. Squad-room tables should be of heavy plank construction, and the chairs of steel.

Typewriters and mimeograph and other duplicating equipment should be supplied to meet department needs. Metal filing cabinets and lockers of uniform make and type permit maximum flexibility in shifting pieces from one office to another, eliminate the problem of matching pieces of odd dimensions, and provide interchangeability of cabinet drawers.

Punch-card sorting and tabulating equipment should be obtained to assure availability of suitable statistical data in departments of more than 150 men, although this equipment can be conveniently used in smaller departments also. Adding machines, calculators, and drafting equipment is needed for the statistician, the traffic engineer, and the planning unit.

Laboratory Equipment. The selection of laboratory equipment will be influenced by the volume of physical evidence brought to the laboratory,

the nature of the examinations that must be made of it, the skill of the laboratory staff, and the cost. The department head should be advised by his laboratory staff, when they are qualified, in determining needs and in establishing priorities in equipment purchases. The laboratory should be well equipped to undertake the usual types of frequently made examinations, but the advisability of purchasing expensive equipment needed only once or twice a year should be examined critically.

The Special Investigator's Equipment. The car used by the special investigator should contain all equipment needed in searching for, recording, collecting, preserving, and transporting physical evidence found at crime and accident scenes. The equipment should be placed in suitably designed cases to assure protection, cleanliness, arrangement for accessibility, and ease in carrying. The cases should contain fingerprint and view cameras with a tripod, flash synchronizer, reflector, flash bulbs, and film holders; long extension cords, flood bulbs, and reflectors; fingerprint powders, atomizers, brushes, lifting tape, and material and equipment for taking comparison prints; tools such as pliers, scissors, tweezers, files, screw drivers, and chisels; magnifiers, tape measure and scales or rulers; casting material, such as plaster of Paris and *moulage*, with containers for mixing and heating; numbered markers, with devices for attaching to wall and other surfaces or to pegs to be pressed into the ground, used for identifying photographs and particular points in the scene; gummed stickers, envelopes, vials, pill boxes, and other containers, cellophane sheets and envelopes, all of several sizes.

The special investigator's car should also contain a broom, a rope, a bullet-resisting shield, gas supplies, and a gas mask. A small gasoline-driven auxiliary electric-power plant to supply suitable illumination in the absence of electric power is also useful.

Emergency Equipment. The police and fire departments are both frequently called into service in emergencies, and the administrative head of the city should establish their respective responsibilities and relationships in order to avoid friction and to assure attention to all tasks. The principle of unity of command makes it imperative that only one be in charge of operations, the other providing such assistance as it is able. The assignment of these duties will determine the equipment the police must keep for such emergencies as drowning and asphyxiation, and the extrication of injured persons and the recovery of bodies from water, sewers, cave-ins, collapsed buildings, and transportation accidents.

There is no prescribed rule in making such assignments, but the general practice is to assign to the fire department duties that require a considerable period of time and heavy equipment such as boats, wrecking cars with winches, and other gear. This seems logical since such equipment

in storage and in operation is more nearly comparable to fire than to police equipment.

Equipment used in police emergencies, however, should be maintained and operated by the police. Included are an emergency power supply to furnish electricity for operating the police radio during the failure of a commercial power line and an auxiliary radio transmitter to be used during the failure of the headquarters transmitter. A 10- or 15-kilowatt generator, driven by an automobile engine, will supply sufficient current to provide essential headquarters illumination in addition. Both the power supply and the auxiliary transmitter should be housed at a location removed from the police building so that in event of damage to headquarters by storm, accident, or design, police operations may continue under radio direction. There are advantages to mounting this equipment on a truck chassis or trailer so that it may be used in large-scale field operations when needed. The lighting facilities provided by flood- and searchlight operated from the generator may be especially useful at night in conducting searches, attacks against barricaded criminals, investigations of important crime scenes, rescue work, and the search for bodies in water.

Special Equipment. A sufficient supply of steel helmets, fighter's cups, and riot clubs should be kept at headquarters to equip a riot squad of such number as the needs of the community may indicate. The riot clubs should be of hickory 26 to 30 inches long and $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter with a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch bar of lead 8 inches long driven into a hole drilled into the business end of each.⁵

Gas in large quantities is needed in handling riots, and the supply should be replaced before age destroys its effectiveness. Three-wheeled motorcycles and helicopters have been used effectively in dispensing tear gas over an extended area.⁶

A mobile public-address system has a number of police uses. It serves to educate motorists and pedestrians and to control large crowds, and it is useful in riots and against barricaded criminals. The speaker is usually mounted on the roof of a police car, although effective traffic educational work in the congested area is possible when it is mounted on a three-wheeled motorcycle.

Chapter 18

DISTRICT STATIONS

The use of district stations has many disadvantages, the most important being the resulting complications in planning, directing, coordinating, and controlling the decentralized police operations.¹ The invariably complex relationships imposed on a department by the creation of district stations are in sharp contrast to the relatively simple relationships that exist in a department operated entirely from one station. The physical separation is a disintegrating force that weakens control over members assigned to the separate station. On the other hand, efforts to tighten the control jeopardize the authority of the district command.² Distance also complicates the transmission of information, instructions, and records, and the custody and transfer of prisoners, property, and evidence. District stations are also costly because the site and the building with its communications, office, jail, and motor equipment represent a large capital investment, and the operation of the station necessitates additional personnel, utility, and other operating costs. Fortunately the need for district stations was reduced with the advent of the automobile, two-way radio, and telephone.

THE NEED FOR DISTRICT STATIONS

In jurisdictions of large area, district stations may be needed to (1) provide greater public convenience and (2) improve the quality of police operations. Other reasons for the use of district stations may be the limited motorization of the force, the off-center location of headquarters, or topographical obstacles to easy travel, such as bodies of water, cliffs, ravines, mountainous areas, undeveloped sections, or railroad tracks without grade crossings, which have the effect of extending the area of the jurisdiction. Sometimes distinct communities within the municipality

¹ A district is the section of a city that has its own police station operated as a substation of headquarters (see Chap. 1).

² The term "district command" is used throughout this chapter to designate the person in immediate command of the district station, *i.e.*, the district captain, and in his absence a district lieutenant or other subordinate who assumes complete charge during the absence of the captain.

demand a district station. The civic pride of a formerly autonomous suburban community presently annexed to a larger jurisdiction may demand the continued use of its police station as a district station, which demand may persist for many years, even though there is no other justification for such a station.

Public Convenience. District stations are considered a public convenience that saves residents in the district travel time in obtaining information, registering complaints, posting bail, paying fines, and obtaining recovered property. Analysis of the public convenience so provided, however, indicates that it is not great. Information is obtained and complaints are registered almost invariably by telephone; few cities with police districts decentralize the acceptance of fines among the district stations. Recovered property is likewise usually stored and controlled at headquarters, and the speedy transfer of prisoners from district-station lockups to the main jail nearly always necessitates the bailor's presence at that location.

Improvement of Police Operations. Some police operations are unquestionably simplified and the quality of service correspondingly improved by the creation of a district station. The district station saves police time in bringing in found property and physical evidence, witnesses and suspects for interrogation, and prisoners for booking and incarceration. Also, patrolmen may be more readily posted at shift changes from a district station because they have a shorter distance to travel to their beats. These advantages are not compelling, however, because a more complete motorization of patrol diminishes these needs except where the distances are great; when foot patrolmen are used in the area, they may be transported by a motorized officer or be permitted to report directly to their beats, going to headquarters only at the end of their tour of duty.

Measuring the Need for District Stations. District stations should not be created until studies of the time saved in operations indicates that the decentralization is economically sound. Police departments in large communities undoubtedly need district stations. An examination of the need for presently existing district stations in many cities, however, indicates that they should be abandoned or reduced in number by consolidation; the small number of citizens who call there in person for police service and the slight saving of time in police operations do not justify the expense.

DISTRICT-STATION COMMAND

The establishment of district stations creates difficult problems of command. Relationships must be established that will assure fixing respon-

sibility on the district command for conditions within the district and for dealing with incidents that require police action. The district command, therefore, must be given commensurate authority. District authority is strongly influenced by district relationships with members of the special divisions (whether these divisions are decentralized or not) and by procedures for the receipt and recording of complaints and the radio dispatching of officers, the control of call boxes, and records kept at the district stations.

Consideration will be given first to cities in which only the patrol division is decentralized among district stations,³ the members of other functional divisions continuing to work from headquarters as though there were no district stations.⁴ Since each district station is commanded by a captain, with lieutenants in charge of some of the shifts, the commander of the patrol division for the entire city should have the rank of major. In departments with an assistant chief in charge of operations and only two or three district stations, the assistant chief in charge of operations may serve as the head of the patrol division, coordinating the district captains. Since each district captain is responsible for the 24-hour performance of all patrol duties and for all conditions in his district, the command power of the head of the patrol force is divided territorially by districts. Any operation that requires the coordination of two or more districts has the attention of the head of the patrol force during his tour of duty, and likewise patrol operations may be coordinated with the action of other divisions by a higher power when the chief or his assistant is on duty. Coordination and control are effected by a central complaint and dispatching bureau that operates as an aid to the line units according to regulations established by the command group in conference with the chief (see Chaps. 3 and 6).

Coordination in the Absence of the Patrol Head. In departments that do not have district stations, the coordination of all on-duty members during the absence of division heads is effected by the patrol lieutenant in the manner previously described.⁵ The creation of district stations complicates the relatively simple coordination by this subordinate of the head of patrol because, instead of one platoon lieutenant having jurisdiction-wide command, decentralization has created a platoon lieu-

³ The patrol division is invariably the first to require decentralization because of its size and its 24-hour jurisdiction-wide coverage.

⁴ A division is an organizational unit of the force that is responsible for the performance of a designated function or task, such as patrol, crime investigation, traffic, vice, juvenile-crime control, and records and communications (see Chap. 1).

⁵ See "Staff Supervision" and "Coordination by Operating Personnel" in Chap. 3.

tenant in each station with authority limited to his district. In the absence of the head of patrol, therefore, a new problem is presented in the coordination of patrol operations that involve more than one district and of emergency operations that require performance by members of all divisions. The principle of unity of command requires that only one man shall be in charge of an operation.

The problem can be satisfactorily solved only by delegating the command power of the head of the patrol division to officers assigned to his office at headquarters during the two night shifts. These officers must have duties and relationships with the personnel of other divisions and with the dispatcher—since coordination is effected through him—similar to the duties and relationships of platoon lieutenants in departments having no district stations. The headquarters officers should not have direct command (except in emergency situations) over district lieutenants and their platoons, since this personnel is in the pyramid of authority of district captains.

These headquarters officers should, however, have staff supervision over district personnel and over otherwise unsupervised on-duty members of other divisions; consequently, they should have the important duty of inspecting personnel and police conditions on the street, at headquarters, and in district stations during their tours of duty. In the performance of these duties, they must maintain continuous communication with the dispatcher to assure immediate availability in the event of emergency.

Unless these officers are well grounded in their relationships with personnel of districts and other divisions, they will violate the principle of unity of command and create the previously described confusion and dissension that results when assistant chiefs are assigned to night shifts (see Chap. 3). This danger is lessened by the fact that they have a rank lower than assistant chief. They should have the rank of captain in large departments having many district stations, and in smaller departments with only two or three stations, the rank of lieutenant. Department regulations should establish the staff character of their service and their superiority to district lieutenants in emergency situations.

Coordination When Other Divisions Are Decentralized. Coordination becomes more complicated as one or more other divisions are decentralized.⁶ One of two relationships is then justified. First, the special force in the district may be supplied with its own supervisory and command staff, and then it would operate independently of the patrol district cap-

⁶ The personnel of the special units should not be decentralized except when the advantages derived clearly outweigh the disadvantages that are inherent in the resulting complicated relationships and lines of control.

tain. The extent of physical independence will vary.⁷ Actual independence from the patrol district command may be established without complete physical separation, although close proximity and joint use of some office facilities create opportunities for friction and may tempt a violation of the principle of unity of command.

Under the second tenable arrangement, the force of specialists in the district is detached from the special division and made a part of the district personnel under the direct control of the district captain.

The choice may be the first in the case of one division or of one special function of a division, and the second in others. For example, in the case of specialists working out of his station, the district commander may be given direct control of some, such as detectives, and he may be given no direct control over others. The choice between the two feasible arrangements is based on the degree of responsibility it is desired to place on the district captain. When the district captain is to be held responsible for the enforcement of parking regulations, for example, he should be given direct control over the officers assigned to this task. If, on the other hand, the special division wishes to retain this responsibility, it must provide supervisory and command staff over officers assigned to these duties. The desirability of retaining complete control in the special divisions is influenced by the specialization-determining factors discussed in Chap. 2.

The plan used by some departments is to give district commanders a staff supervision over members of special divisions on duty in his district in the same manner such supervision is made the responsibility of platoon lieutenants in departments having no district stations (see Chap. 3). This plan does not work as satisfactorily as the two above-described methods because separation by distance, and the larger number of commanders involved, weakens the control of the special divisions over members assigned to districts and complicates the maintenance of satisfactory working relationships with district commanders. This less desirable

⁷ In New York City, where the traffic districts are not invariably coterminous with the patrol districts and where the traffic-division stations are sometimes in buildings separated from patrol-district quarters, one building housed both the district patrol quarters and the district traffic quarters. A door joining the two quarters was nailed shut to emphasize the separation and to lessen the danger of conflict. When district stations independent of patrol district stations are maintained, relationships are simplified and friction minimized; members of the special unit are then controlled from headquarters in the same way as the patrol division, as described above. This degree of independence is rare because the relatively small force of the special divisions does not usually justify the expense of maintaining district stations with office personnel adequate to provide control over the force on duty.

plan should be restricted to fields where the technical requirements of the tasks are beyond the capacity of district platoon commanders and where the small number of specialists makes impractical the assignment of a supervisor from the special division.

In summary, it is best that officers should be either under the direct control of the special division or under the direct control of the district command. Sometimes these two arrangements should be used in combination, one division retaining complete control of all their members while another assigns personnel on detached service to a district captain for the performance of one or all of the tasks of the division during one or more shifts. This flexibility assures an arrangement based on need instead of by arbitrary rule created merely to assure uniformity.

DISTRICT-STATION COMMUNICATIONS

The extent of real authority exercised by the district command over operations in its district is strongly influenced by the manner in which the district command participates in department voice communications and in the receipt of complaints telephoned by citizens. This is so because authority is exercised by command, and police commands in field operations are nearly always through some communication system, usually the police radio, although the call-box system and other telephones are sometimes used. Also, telephoned citizen complaints initiate nearly all station-directed police action in the field.

Central control of police communications and complaint records is greatly to be desired. As previously explained, a central complaint room is essential to guarantee reliability of reporting, and this need is equally important in departments having district stations. The necessity of utilizing members from adjoining districts in operations that lie near the district boundary, and in other operations where man power of the district must be supplemented, makes important a communications control that is city-wide. Since the principle of unity of command is violated when one district commander gives orders to the members of other districts, it is necessary that a higher coöordinating power exercise command in these instances. The need for central control is further emphasized by the absence of a radio transmitter for each district.⁸

District-station Desk. The greatly-to-be-desired central control described above must be provided in such a way that it will not rob the district command of its essential authority; otherwise, the district com-

⁸ Decentralization of broadcasting, made necessary by terrain or other interference and by traffic so heavy that it cannot be handled by one headquarters transmitter, is discussed in Chaps. 14 and 18.

mand cannot be held responsible for conditions and police operations in its district. Choice must be made between the district station and some central headquarters point for radio dispatching and for receiving complaints from citizens, reports on their accomplishments from dispatched officers, and calls over the call-box system. Also involved is the manner of making known to the dispatcher the availability of officers for dispatch.

By the maintenance of a desk at the district station with suitable tie lines between it and the central complaint and communications room, and by wise choices of the alternatives listed above, it is possible to provide needed central control without unduly sacrificing the authority of the district command. The district desk officer must operate a switchboard on which should terminate, in addition to the tie lines to the central complaint room, the call-box lines, lines to each of the offices in the district station, and a suitable number of unlisted trunk lines.

The Call-box System. When there is justification for district stations, the call-box system should be decentralized so that the call-box lines in each district will terminate in a switchboard at the district-station desk. This decentralized arrangement is sound for the reason that, since nearly all patrolmen are (or should be) radio-equipped, the call-box is used principally for supervision, for routine messages to the street officers, and for the transmission of reports on their accomplishments by officers dispatched on calls, rather than for dispatching officers. The district command is responsible for the supervision of officers and for the control of police operations in the district, and consequently it is important that it exercise control over this principal reporting device.

The Point of Dispatch. Radio dispatching in departments having district stations should be from a central point as previously described.⁹ Dispatching the members of his force by the district command on district incidents instead of by a central dispatcher has the following disadvantages: (1) The central dispatcher must undertake interdistrict operations involving incidents that occur near a district boundary, extended pursuit of criminals, and catastrophes that either extend beyond district boundaries or require a force from other districts. The provision for district control of some operations and central control of others is undesirable for a number of reasons. It creates the necessity of having constantly available the person who is to decide instantly which incidents should be handled by the district and which by the central headquarters. (2) It necessitates a separate police emergency telephone number for each

⁹ See Chap. 17 and *Police Records*, pp. 13-21 and 136-137. Decentralization of broadcasting becomes necessary under some circumstances, as explained on p. 326.

district for the use of the public in contrast to only one when complaint and dispatching duties are centralized. (3) It results in a decentralization of complaint recording and consequent decrease in the accuracy of crime accounting owing to weakened control. (4) Instructions telephoned by the district command to the dispatcher for broadcast to the district force entails an undesirable time lag, which is very undesirable in police operations where split seconds may make the difference between success and failure. (5) Divided control of the radio-transmitting facilities, with district broadcasts made from each district station, makes integration of the many broadcasts difficult and virtually impossible with more than three or four district stations. Friction among district stations and the central dispatcher as to the priority of broadcasts invariably results.

Availability of Radio-equipped Officers. Radio-equipped officers available for dispatch should be shown within the view of the dispatcher by lights on beat maps and, for those not assigned to beats, or panels beside the maps.¹⁰ Similar beat maps and panels, restricted, however, to the area and personnel of the district, should be installed within the view of the district desk officer. Switches at both locations and tie lines between the maps and panels at both points enable the officer at either position to turn on or off the lights on both sets to show the availability of officers for service.¹¹

Monitoring Broadcasts. In order to call the attention of the district desk officer to broadcasts on incidents occurring within the district, without the necessity for him to listen to all broadcasts, there should be a loud-speaker at the district desk tied into the dispatcher's office by a direct line, so that the dispatcher can feed through the loud-speaker the broadcasts of concern to the district desk officer. There should also be a radio receiver at the district desk so that the desk officer can monitor other broadcasts as he wishes. The receiver may be eliminated if the district-station loud-speaker is equipped with dual-control switches to permit the district desk officer to turn it off at will, and with an additional line to enable the dispatcher to force-feed district broadcasts through the speaker without regard to the position of the switch at the district desk.

Reports by Officers Dispatched and off the Air. When an officer is dispatched to participate in any manner in disposing of an incident that

¹⁰ See Chap. 17 and *Police Records*, pp. 136-137.

¹¹ Pending the installation of suitable tie lines to enable control of the lights from both positions, and also when the cost of this preferred procedure is not considered justified, the purpose can be accomplished, in a manner to be described later, by a direct telephone line from the district-station desk to the person in the central complaint room or dispatcher's office who is responsible for showing the availability of officers by lights on the dispatcher's maps and panels.

calls for police action,¹² he must report back to someone the action he has taken and the fact that he is once more available for assignment. Officers must also report themselves out of service when they go to lunch or are engaged in activities that take them out of carshot of their radio.

Should the information noted above be transmitted only to the central complaint room or dispatcher, the district command would be short-circuited and would play no part either in the direction of police operations in the district or in the real control of district personnel. Since the district command is responsible for supervising the officers and also for police operations in their district, they must receive information regarding when their officers are out of service, the reason for their unavailability, and the action taken by them when they have been dispatched to the scene of action.

Officers dispatched on a call should report back in service to the dispatcher, who should then indicate their availability by switching on the lights on his map and also on the district map when the previously described tie lines enable this dual control. The patrol officers should also be required to report their accomplishments and their return to duty to their district desk officer by call box or telephone. The district desk officer should check at this time to assure himself that the officers are shown to be in service on his map. In the absence of the tie lines between the maps, the district desk officer should adjust his district beat-map lights independently of the dispatcher.

The control of district officers in reporting off the air (for the reasons noted above) should be vested in the district command in order to strengthen the control and lessen the abuse of this practice. When the number of motor units is so limited as to make necessary the dispatch of some to adjoining districts in a substantial number of calls, this control must be vested in the dispatcher, because the district desk officer is not in a position to judge the over-all need. In a suitably motorized department, however, the control should be vested in the district desk officer; he can appraise the strength of his field force at any moment by consulting his illuminated beat maps and panels and thus be in a position to regulate officers reporting off the air so as to avoid dangerously depleting his force; he can also detect and report to his platoon commander instances of abuse of this practice. In such departments, therefore, the district officer should obtain permission to go off the air from his desk officer who should so notify the dispatcher by means of the dual control of the lights on both maps. In the absence of this dual control he should give notice to the dispatcher by telephone, or if desired, the patrol officer

¹² See Chap. 6.

may notify the dispatcher by radio, but not without prior clearance with the district desk. Return to service may be accomplished by reporting by radio to the dispatcher, who would notify the district desk, either by the dual control of map lights or, in its absence, by force-feeding the acknowledgment through the district-station loud-speaker. In the latter case the district desk officer should adjust his map lights accordingly.

Receipt of Complaints. From this it may be seen that all complaints should come to a central complaint room¹³ where action on them may be taken by the dispatcher who has city-wide staff command (see Chap. 3). On receipt of a complaint, the central complaint room should transmit essential information to the dispatcher, assign a serial number to the complaint, and then telephone the information to the district station. The district desk officer, on receipt of this information, should prepare a complaint sheet and record a brief résumé of the incident on the district daily bulletin for the information of all members of the district force.¹⁴

Action by Officers from Other Districts. Officers who are dispatched to the scene of action in an adjoining or nearby district and officers in hot pursuit should deliver any person they may arrest and report any other action they may take to the district station having jurisdiction over the incident. When the information they must report is detailed, they should proceed to the station in the district having jurisdiction and submit a written report; usually, however, they need only call the district desk officer, who will then note the information for inclusion in the case.

District Command. The above-described procedures do not jeopardize the authority of the district command. The central dispatcher performs for the district command a service that is nearly identical to that performed by the dispatcher for the platoon lieutenant in a department without district stations. The dispatcher should be required, on district command, to send additional officers of that district to the scene or to take any other specific action in reference to the deployment of the district officers. The district command should likewise have the right

¹³ In very large cities the great distances increase the need for district stations. The desirability of decentralizing more rather than fewer police functions is usually somewhat in proportion to the distance between a district station and its headquarters. The greater the distance, therefore, the more complete will the functions of the district station usually be. When the distance is very great the district station will operate very nearly as an independent police department in the sense that it will be a nearly complete operating unit by itself. At some point in the increasing distances between headquarters and district stations it becomes desirable to establish a district complaint room. Persons within the district jurisdiction would then telephone their complaints to the district station and not to headquarters.

¹⁴ A description of complaint sheets and the daily bulletin and an explanation of their use is found in *Police Records*, pp. 41-46 and 57-59.

to request additional officers from adjoining districts to assist at the scene of an incident in his bailiwick, but he would not have the authority to order them in. The dispatching of officers from other districts is an action taken by the dispatcher as an aide to the head of the patrol division; it is for the purpose of supervising such dispatching that a representative of the patrol-division head should be on duty at all times, as previously explained.

Decentralization of Broadcasting. More than one radio transmitter is needed for dispatching when suitable coverage of the entire area cannot be provided by one station, or when the traffic, which is markedly increased by two-way transmission, becomes so heavy that it cannot be suitably handled by one transmitter. In a very large city several serious incidents may be reported simultaneously from widely separated locations, and officers could not be dispatched simultaneously when all operate on one frequency. A priority must then be established, and one or more of the incidents may not have officers dispatched for some time. When two or more transmitters on different frequencies are installed to serve designated areas, the operation is speeded up and a heavier load can be handled.¹⁵

The need for completely blanketing the jurisdiction necessitates more than one transmitter in state police organizations, in large cities, and in areas where the police have been organized on a regional basis thus extending the organization beyond the boundaries of the individual participating governmental units. When the need is based only on the necessity for complete coverage, all transmitters should be on the same frequency.

When more than one radio transmitter is used, the question arises as to the advisability of decentralizing dispatching by duplicating the previously described complaint and dispatching setup (see Chap. 14) in the areas served by each transmitter. The desirability of such decentralization is somewhat in proportion to the distances involved. For example, in the police force of a large state, the several transmitters scattered throughout the area should be operated independently of the central office, whereas in a relatively small city without district stations, where the need for more than one transmitter arises solely from the necessity

¹⁵ When one or more transmitters on different frequencies are installed to serve designated areas in the jurisdiction of a large force, police vehicles (especially those assigned to districts contiguous to the dividing line between the areas) should have receivers and transmitters equipped with switches that enable switching to the frequencies of the adjoining area when ordered to do so, so that officers from one area, dispatched into the adjoining area on request, will be under the radio control of the command of that area.

of eliminating dead spots, it would be desirable to retain centralization of complaint and dispatching duties.

Decentralization of dispatching creates the following problems that are nonexistent, or relatively unimportant, when the operation is centralized. (1) Coordination of officers from more than one area in a police operation (usually growing out of incidents near the dividing line between the areas) becomes more difficult when the commands are separated by space. (2) When there is justification for the decentralization of the complaint and dispatching duties, there will usually be justification for the creation of a separate records system also. The creation of separate records offices and systems lessens the advantages gained from their centralization. (3) Instead of one police telephone number to be called by citizens in the event of emergency, there is one for each complaint room. Citizens in each area must then be informed of the number they should call and educated in its use.

Decentralization of complaint and dispatching among all district stations by giving each a transmitter on a separate frequency should be used only when the distances involved are great enough to justify it. Decentralization has the advantages of giving complete authority over the district force and its operation to the district command and of facilitating two-way radio transmission, but the disadvantages listed above plus the expense involved in the installation of so many transmitters and the heavy load they would place on police radio channels seem to outweigh these advantages.

DISTRICT-STATION RECORDS

District stations, with their consequent decentralization of operations, multiply the problems of administrative control and, therefore, strengthen the need for centralization of records. The fundamental elements of the records system continue to be complaint, arrest, and identification records, and the district station may maintain its own number series for each of them. The district number series may be eliminated, however, by a requirement that a number from the central numbering series be obtained and used at the origin of each record. This is done by telephoning to the central complaint room for the assignment of a complaint number,¹⁸ to the central booking room for an arrest number, and to the central

¹⁸ When a district station is so widely removed from headquarters that all complaints within its jurisdiction are reported to the district station, a block of central complaint room numbers may be periodically assigned to the district station or a separate records system may be installed for the remote district with provision for only basic information to be forwarded to headquarters.

identification office for an identification number. The central office should be supplied, in each case, with suitable facts regarding officer, district, offense, victim, and arrestee to enable identification of the record should an error be made in recording the number assigned. District property-control records should likewise be an integral part of the central records system.

The essential records operations of the district stations are integrated into the central records system by transmitting to the central records office the original complaint sheet with the originals of related reports and records, the original arrest record, and the fingerprint record.

Complaint Records. All telephoned complaints, with infrequent exception, are received and handled by the central complaint room in the manner described above. The district station also prepares a complaint sheet on each incident reported by citizens in person or by police officers, and essential information is telephoned to the central complaint room in order to have a central complaint number assigned to it in the manner described above. District stations should retain copies of the complaint sheets and follow up on the final disposition of their cases. Investigation reports, like the complaint sheets, should be in sufficient copies to furnish one for the district office and one for other interested divisions. District copies of reports should be kept a limited time after the case has been disposed of as protection against the possibility of the loss of the central records copies.

Arrest and Identification Records. Arrest record cards, with an extra copy, are prepared on persons booked at district stations. When the prisoner is released, the arrest record, properly filled in, is forwarded to the central records office. When the prisoner is transferred to the central police jail, the arrest record accompanies him, and a copy is forwarded separately to the central records office for control purposes.

The fingerprint records of persons printed at district stations are likewise forwarded to the central identification office. The district station should not retain arrest and fingerprint records after the subject is out of their control but should rely on the central records office for information they may need.

Other Essential Records. Keeping the records work of the district stations to a minimum compatible with effective operations conserves man power and also promotes a greater centralization of records which facilitates control. The district stations, therefore, should rely on the central records office indexes for auto thefts and stolen property with their serial numbers and inscriptions, although they should maintain for their own use a general alphabetical index and a classification index of cases handled by them, and an index of questionable characters in

their districts. A district daily bulletin is also needed to keep district officers informed on police activities within their area in greater detail than is possible through the department daily bulletin.¹⁷ For reasons of economy the central records office should furnish district stations with daily, weekly, and monthly summaries and analyses of the department operations subdivided into districts for comparative purposes, and more detailed analysis of the current police problem in each district. The district station should maintain its own spot maps and charts of accomplishments, although the extent to which it will undertake such analyses will depend on the extensiveness, suitability, and quality of the analyses furnished by the central records office. Decisions regarding records to be kept by the district stations are also influenced by the size of the city, because one or two district stations permit a greater centralization of records than would 20 district stations.

¹⁷ The purposes served by such a bulletin were described in Chap. 13.

Chapter 19

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: RECRUITMENT

The management of police personnel is the chief's most important administrative task. A high quality of police service is attained by the application of two principles: (1) The best man must invariably be selected for appointment, promotion, and assignment; and (2) doubts in reference to appointment, promotion, or separation from service must be resolved in favor of the department. Superior police departments are, therefore, the hardest to get into and the easiest to get out of.¹ The police chief must assure the application of these principles. He will further enhance the quality of service by providing a continuing and effective training program, exercising controls that will assure accomplishment equal to the capacity of the individual officer, and safeguarding the welfare of the members of his force. His attainment of these objectives will determine in a large measure his success as a police chief.

A police department is no better than the aggregate of its individual members. Incompetent, untrained, and undisciplined policemen invariably provide unsatisfactory service; they are responsible for the poor reputation of their own department and strongly influence unfavorable public opinion of police service throughout the country. Police chiefs as a group and as heads of their individual departments are able to raise the standard of police service most easily by careful attention to the selection and management of their personnel. Failure in this respect is a characteristic of most unsuccessful police administrators.

THE POLICE PERSONNEL OFFICER

In only the small department will the police chief have the time necessary to perform the important personnel duties, and even then he may need some outside technical assistance. In larger forces a police personnel officer should be appointed to assist the chief in the performance of these tasks. In departments of fewer than 100 men the police personnel officer may also perform other duties, but in larger forces he should work on a full-time basis, and in the largest he will require assistants.

¹ Bruce Smith, *The State Police*, The Macmillan Company, New York, p. 158.

The department personnel officer should be trained in public personnel administration. When the appointment of a qualified personnel officer is not feasible, a policeman, selected for this assignment on the basis of his interest, intelligence, and educational background, should prepare himself by a study of techniques used in the personnel field. Most of the colleges and universities offer courses in public personnel administration, and the Institute for Training in Municipal Administration provides such a course by correspondence to persons currently in public service.² Training in psychology and testing is particularly desirable.

Duties of the Police Personnel Officer. The duties of the department personnel officer may be divided into the following five broad fields, in each of which the officer is charged with the development of procedures and their application to facilitate the accomplishment of his objectives: (1) Personnel must be selected for recruitment, assignment, and promotion, and to this end suitable testing procedures must be developed or adopted. (2) The value to the service of each member of the force must be appraised: performance and accomplishments must be noted and evaluated; the exceptionally competent must be discovered so that their talents may be used to best advantage in assignment and promotion; the deficient must be detected in order that action may be taken to remedy the present weaknesses and to prevent future ones. (3) The members of the force must be suitably trained. The personnel officer must concern himself with preservice, recruit, and in-service training to assure a suitable standard of performance. (4) The members must be controlled. Effective supervision must be assured, complaints against the officers must be investigated, and suitable disciplinary measures must be applied when needed. (5) Attention must be given to the welfare of members of the force. Conditions of employment must be satisfactory, suitable provision must be made for retirement, and desirable employee relations must be established.

Relationship with the Central Personnel Agency. In larger cities there is usually a central personnel agency for all city employees. Central personnel agencies should follow the principle of superior public service, *i.e.*, their purpose should be to improve the quality of municipal service by assisting the operating departments in the management of their personnel. A personnel agency with any other purpose will hinder effective service by the operating departments by interfering with the application of principles of personnel management that are vital to the development of a body of men prepared to provide a high quality of service.

Central municipal personnel agencies may be roughly divided into two

² The International City Managers' Association, 1313 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Ill.

categories: (1) those that are under the direct control of the administrative head of the municipality and (2) those that are independent of the chief administrative officer, with authority to make important decisions in reference to appointments, promotions, and discipline, without regard to the administrative head of either the city or of the operating department.

Both types of central personnel agencies are found that follow the principle of superior public service, and when so motivated, they render valuable assistance to operating departments. The failure to follow this principle, however, is found more frequently in agencies that are independent of the administrative head of the city. Failures of personnel agencies in both categories in this respect are for the most part traceable to one or more of four causes: (1) technical incompetence in the application of sound personnel administrative procedures, (2) political influence, (3) lack of integrity resulting in bribery and corruption of the personnel staff, and (4) the desire of the personnel agency to exercise control over the management of personnel by the operating departments.

Fortunately, bribery or corruption of the central personnel staff is extremely rare. Political influence and incompetence are much more common, and where they exist, the personnel tasks of the chief are greatly increased, for he must make every effort to secure sound personnel administration in his force despite the shortcomings of the central personnel agency. The fourth fault of central personnel agencies—the desire to exercise management control over departmental personnel instead of providing staff assistance to the responsible department executives—is due to a fundamental misconception of the task of the central personnel agency. The erroneous idea that it is the business of the personnel agency rather than the responsible department executives to make decisions concerning personnel matters is often held not only by the staff members of the personnel agency, but frequently by the general public and even by public administrators. Unless the proper functions of the central personnel agency are clearly understood by all concerned, and sound relations between the personnel agency and the operating departments are secured, the administration of the departments will be impaired.

The desire of the personnel agency to exercise control is often defended on the ground that the personnel agency lacks confidence in the ability and integrity of the heads of operating departments. Historically, many civil service commissions were established to lessen the evils of the political spoils system, and many continue to regard their police functions over the departments as more important than their service functions. One of the results of this attitude is that too much security is accorded to employees against separation from the service or other disciplinary

action, and police chiefs have found it difficult, if not impossible, to weed out incompetent and untrustworthy officers.

The control of the personnel of operating departments by a central personnel agency is a violation of the principle that a person should not be given authority unless he is held accountable for his use of it. The central personnel agency is not held responsible for police failures, but the police chief is, and consequently he must have the power to control the members of his force. When the central personnel agency has granted to it by law, or assumes an authority over, the administration of police personnel that interferes with the effective operation of the department, an improper relationship exists that should be corrected.

A suitable relationship between the central agency and the operating department is more important in the police department than in any other because police service is essentially a personal service. Most other departments work with things, while the police department spends a greater proportion of its effort in working with people. A high quality of police service requires that careful consideration must be given to the personal qualifications of applicants and members of the force, including intelligence, judgment, emotional stability, personality, reputation, and character (especially in reference to integrity and morality).

The Police Chief's Personnel Responsibilities. Final responsibility for the consequences of the appointment, assignment, promotion, and discipline of policemen rests on the chief. This fact must be emphasized. His success as a police administrator is dependent on his control of the members of his force. He should have freedom to select for appointment and promotion and to assign and remove policemen from service, subject to the direction of the administrative head of the city. This means that the police chief's personnel policies and program must have the approval of the chief executive of the city. The extent to which the latter will wish to participate in the administration of the program is dependent on his willingness and ability to delegate authority, the size of the community, and the confidence he has in his police chief. The police chief must have an understanding with his superior as to (1) matters that require preaction consultation and approval, (2) action that the chief may take without prior clearance but on which a report is desired, and (3) other matters on which no report is desired.

The central personnel agency should assist the chief in his management of police personnel. Any other relationship between the central agency and the police department is unsound, and the police chief, through the administrative head of the city, should insist on its correction. Should the central agency prevent the chief from exercising suitable control over police personnel and fail to provide qualified recruits, or demand that

incompetent men be appointed, the chief has no alternative but to test the candidates himself and to take necessary steps to avoid the appointment of those not qualified for police service. Similar action must be taken to avoid interference by the central agency in the assignment, promotion, and discipline of the members of the force.

The following pages describe a sound personnel program which the police chief is responsible for initiating. The extent to which he will be free to do so and the extent to which the police will participate in the application of the procedures to be described will be influenced by the existence of a central personnel agency and its relationship to the police department. When the personnel agency is staffed by professionally competent persons whose objectives are to assist line departments in providing a superior public service, there should be no conflict between it and the police chief; when they both have the same objective, differences are usually resolved without difficulty. On the other hand, when the central agency impedes the employment of sound personnel practices, the chief must utilize every resource to assure their application and to provide himself with a control of their operation because of his responsibility as the head of the police department.

The Police Personnel Officer and the Central Personnel Agency. The existence of a central personnel agency does not diminish the need for a police personnel officer. He should serve as a liaison officer between the police department and the central agency; he must establish suitable working relationships between the two. The conditions of service and the police personnel requirements differ from those found in other departments; a knowledge of the nature of police service is consequently needed to assure a wise application in that department of the principles of personnel administration by someone otherwise technically well qualified. The police personnel officer, therefore, should promote the objectives of the central agency in the police department by assisting in the application of the techniques of personnel management to meet the unique needs of police service.

The department personnel officer will actively assist the central agency in the promotion of police recruitment, in the establishment of satisfactory eligibility standards for appointment, in the development and application of reliable testing procedures for selection and promotion, and in the development and use of suitable measures of accomplishment and service ratings. He will train and assist supervising officers in the evaluation of their subordinates. He will assist in the creation and supervise the operation of disciplinary and grievance machinery and procedures. He will promote and direct police training and further the welfare of the members of the force.

The confidence of the central personnel agency in the police personnel officer, coupled with their own shortage of staff, will usually result in most, if not all, of the police personnel work being done by the department personnel officer, but under the general direction and with the approval of the central agency.

ATTRACTING CANDIDATES AND ESTABLISHING THEIR ELIGIBILITY

The competence of recruits appointed to the force will determine the quality of police leadership and service for the ensuing 20 or 30 years. Recruitment, therefore, is a grave responsibility that stands first on the list of personnel administrative duties.

Qualified personnel is obtained by selecting candidates best suited to the immediate job (which is almost invariably patrol) who have potential or actual leadership qualities desired in supervisory and commanding officers. These are the qualities of a good executive, *viz.*, intelligence, sound judgment, decisiveness, physical and nervous energy, personality, character, and the ability to convince and inspire and to maintain confidence, enthusiasm, and interest.

The recruit must be organically sound with a properly functioning nervous system; he must be young and of suitable size; he must have strength, energy, and physical endurance and possess adequate physical coordination and speed to provide the necessary degree of agility. To be qualified to deal with the many complex problems that will frequently and unexpectedly confront him, he must have a high order of intelligence, which assures ability to learn, to observe, to retain, to reason rapidly and accurately, and to adapt quickly and satisfactorily to new situations. The patrolman works with people, and to be successful, he must like people and be able to deal with them; he must be emotionally stable and temperamentally equipped for police work and have a broad social concept and a lack of prejudice. He should have a forceful personality and a high level of social intelligence; he should be poised and have well-developed powers of self-expression. The temptations that confront a policeman and the critical attitude of the public make good character and reputation essential. Finally, and perhaps most important of all, he must be loyal.

Conditions That Attract Candidates of Superior Quality. Success in obtaining recruits having the above-described qualities is dependent on (1) a group of candidates of which more than the needed number have the desired qualities and (2) the selection of the best from the group.

The quality of applicants is partially dependent on the conditions of service. Consequently the pay, hours of workweek, relief and vacation

time, pensions, insurance, sick leave, and sick, death, and other benefits for the officer and his family should compare favorably with those available in competing employment opportunities. Otherwise, excellent potential candidates, as well as men recruited into the service, will seek more attractive employment in other fields.

More important than these material advantages in attracting and holding qualified men, however, is the intangible but nonetheless real spirit or atmosphere of the department reflecting the morale and true character of the force. A high *esprit de corps* is based on the interest, enthusiasm, love of work, and respect and confidence of members of the force in their superior officers. But most important of all in attracting competent men is the prestige of the service, which is public recognition of superior service.

And finally, the opportunities for employment must be brought to the attention of persons likely to possess the necessary qualifications in such an attractive way as to create a desire for appointment. This is done by advertising, the amount and character of which is influenced by the difficulty of the recruitment problem. Departments with high prestige and good salaries and working conditions may find little or no effort necessary to recruit qualified applicants.

The advertising campaign should be sufficiently intensive, selective, and effective to attract the desired number of candidates who possess suitable qualifications, and every commercial advertisement procedure may be utilized when necessary. Notices sent to schools, the Y.M.C.A., labor offices, and announced at civic and other club meetings and on the radio, and selectively placed posters of attention-demanding design are all devices that may be used. News items are more productive than legal notices and paid advertisements in the press, but all should be used. Frank discussions with editors and reporters regarding personnel policies and objectives, with explanations of the qualifications desired and the methods used in personnel selection, usually result in publicity that stimulates applications by qualified persons. These explanations also lessen the likelihood of unfavorable stories, resulting from ignorance of purpose and methods, that ridicule the procedures used.

Residence Requirements. Preemployment residence in the community should not be required of candidates, for it reduces the number of qualified applicants from whom the most promising may be selected. Qualified young men who are residents of other cities or of small communities and rural areas often lack attractive opportunities in their local police service and are frequently interested in service in the department of a larger community. Local residence requirement would deny the community the opportunity to recruit promising candidates who may, in some instances, provide a quality of leadership lacking among local appli-

cants. Further advantages are derived from the appointment of an out-of-town man; he has no local entangling alliances, and his background and standards of living sometimes make him more content than the city-bred man with the conditions of police service.

A case can be readily made against limiting police appointments to candidates having preemployment residence in the community by comparing the records of service and the reputations of departments that follow this practice with those of departments that have not imposed such restrictions on their candidates. Departments with the greatest prestige and with long records of superior service recruit their policemen without limitation on residence, and increasing numbers of progressive departments are now adopting this policy.

Citizenship should be required of all candidates, and local residence after appointment is desirable except in communities where compliance with such a requirement would work an undue hardship on policemen because of limited suitable housing facilities.

Advantages of Youth. Important advantages are gained by recruiting young men into police service. The older the man, the more likely that he has experienced failure in some field of activity. Successful police forces cannot be built of men who have been unsuccessful, and who as a consequence may have established undesirable patterns of thought and conduct. The older man also is more likely to have skills and experiences that may tempt him to leave the police service when conditions of employment in other fields seem more favorable. The man who lacks other skills and who has not experienced service in other activities is more likely to be contented in police service.

The younger recruit has more potential years of service, thus providing a longer period of profitable return on the investment of his recruitment, training, and experience, and postponing the day when further sums must be expended to select and train someone to replace him. In consequence, the younger man is a lighter burden on both the retirement system and the operating budget than the older man. The younger man also has greater physical endurance and disease resistance when properly selected; he is more plastic, his habits are not rigidly set, and he is consequently more easily trained and more adaptable to the conditions of service. The younger man who has not engaged in other activities is more likely to be the one who has chosen police service as his career and to have prepared himself by intensive preservice training. More important still, when the young man who possesses the qualities desired in police service is not appointed at the time he is available, he will nearly always find his niche in some other field, and his services are then lost to the police forever.

The disadvantages of the immaturity of youth should be discounted. Time and experience quickly correct the immaturity of otherwise well-qualified men; when wisely selected, the immaturity of the young recruit will not seriously impair his judgment, if at all, and service on the early morning (graveyard) shift and some other assignments remove him from the eyes of the more critical citizens and from situations where his youth may be to his disadvantage.

Educational Background. While university training will not make a competent person of one with an inferior intellect or who is otherwise deficient, when all other factors are equal the university-trained man is better qualified than one who lacks this broadening experience. An educational standard of high school graduation is justified today when everyone has the opportunity and there is an adequate number of persons who have completed high school. The increasing number who are receiving university training justifies 2 years of college as a preliminary requirement for candidates, with provision for lowering the standard in a manner to be described later when candidates excel in other qualities. This standard will not prevent the procurement of a suitable number of qualified candidates in most parts of the country today.

Height and Weight. A small man is at a disadvantage in dealing with a crowd and with an unruly individual; the larger man is better able to observe in a crowd, and his size tends to instill a respect not felt toward the smaller person. One good-sized policeman, when asked whether there were any advantages in being so large, replied that it saved a lot of fighting.

Policemen should be above average height, and most police departments adhere to a minimum standard of 5 feet 9 inches. This minimum standard should be adopted as a preliminary requirement for applicants. Applicants who enjoy the advantages of greater height but who may be only slightly deficient in other requirements and applicants who may be slightly shorter than the standard but who excel in other greatly desired qualities may be considered as candidates by the flexible application of these standards in a manner to be described later.

A maximum height of 6 feet 4 inches should also be established to rule out the abnormal because a greater height is frequently the result of glandular disorder.

The weight should be in proportion to the height. The physician who makes the medical and physical examination, to be described later, should determine the suitability of the proportion in each case.

Eligibility Standards for Candidates. The following table establishes a scale of percentage scores for the factors of age, height, and education, and permits a more flexible standard of qualifications, which is prefer-

able to arbitrary, fixed minimum standards for each factor. A candidate who is twenty-one years of age, 6 feet 1 inch in height, and has a master's degree in criminology would make a perfect score of 300. It is recommended that the minimum qualifying score be set at 240. At this point, a man who is twenty-six years of age, 5 feet 9 inches tall, and has attended college 2 years would qualify. A younger man can qualify with slightly less height, or less education; an older man would have to have greater height or higher educational qualifications. The operation of the table permits applicants who have had college education to qualify even though they are slightly under the customary height standard; it also permits younger applicants to qualify even though they have not graduated from high school. Thus it will avoid the elimination of well-qualified candidates who are slightly under the customary minimum standards.

SCORING TABLE FOR AGE, HEIGHT, AND EDUCATION

Percentage score	Age (passed 21st birth date but not reached)	Height (less than 6 ft. 4 in. but more than)	Education
100	22	6 ft. 1 in.	Master's degree in criminology
98	23	6 0	
95	24	5 11	Master's degree
90	25	5 10	A.B. or B.S. degree
85	26	5 9½	3 years college
80	27	5 9	2 years college
75	28	5 8¾	1 year college
70	29	5 8½	High school graduate
65		5 8¼	
60	30	5 8	
55		5 7¾	3 years high school
50	31	5 7½	
45		5 7¼	
40	32	5 7	2 years high school

The Application. A great deal of personal history data must be obtained from the candidate before his appointment, not only to assist in the selection but also for inclusion in the personnel file. These data are of value in understanding the officer, in his development and training, and as a guide in selections for promotion and assignment. These data should be recorded by the candidates on suitable forms as a part of the

character investigation after they have successfully passed the other examinations, as described in a later section. The other tests may eliminate as many as 75 per cent of the candidates, and consequently the preparation of a long-form application is a waste of forms and of the time of unsuccessful candidates.

A convenient application form is printed on an 8- by 5-inch card with spaces for recording the name, address, and telephone number of the candidate, his age, height, weight, education, sex, color, marital status, children, total indebtedness, and present employment, and for recording the end results of the several tests. This application form is a helpful tool in administering the entire selection process. A suggested application card is shown in Form A.

The Preliminary Interview. The practice of some departments of interviewing the candidate at the time of filing the application seems unsound. It serves no useful purpose but only wastes the time of the department and the candidate, unless the interviewer is empowered to reject on a basis of the interview. Rejection at this stage and by one man is unwise. The effort at this point should be to obtain as many candidates as possible; unfitness for service is the purpose of the tests and examinations and should not be undertaken by one interviewer.

The personal interview at the time of filing the application is used by some departments to inform the candidate verbally of the conditions of employment. This waste of department time is avoided when the applicant is given a booklet descriptive of the service and instructed to read it before filing his application. The brochure should describe the conditions, and list without bias the advantages and disadvantages, of the service; it should also give the age, height, and educational requirements, and a description of qualities desired in recruits. Most unqualified applicants, reading these requirements, will eliminate themselves.

Some departments undertake to dissuade potential candidates from applying by exaggerating the disadvantages of the service in the belief that, when a bleak prospect is presented, the less determined will withdraw and the recruits will not feel that they have been inducted under false pretenses. This practice is not considered sound for the reason that intelligent candidates are desired, and the intelligent man will weigh the relative merits and demerits of employment in several fields, and if police service be unfairly presented in an unfavorable light, some intelligent potential candidates will decide against it. As a general rule it is not good sales technique to exaggerate the demerits of a product. The larger the group of candidates, the greater the selection which is possible, and consequently departments should solicit applicants and should fairly emphasize the advantages of the service.

FORM A

APPLICATION FOR APPOINTMENT AS PATROLMAN

Date.....

Name..... Born: Date..... Place.....
(Print full name)

Address..... Telephone numbers.....

Age . Height . Weight . Sex . Color . Education

Marital status. . . Children. . . Ever estranged from spouse?

Present occupation and employer

Number of employers since you left school. . . Present indebtedness

Do you live in a rented room, apartment, or house, or do you own the property where you live?

If living with relatives, indicate relationship

If ever arrested, state years, locations, charges

If ever convicted, state years, courts, charges, sentences

List physical disabilities or abnormalities

List all serious illnesses and injuries, giving years

This form to be filled in with pen. Signature

(Front—8 by 5 inches)

Results of Tests, Examinations, and Appraisals

Test title	Passed	Failed	Score	Relative standing
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				

Combined relative standing

Adjusted combined relative standing

Reasons for adjustment and comments:

Personnel officer

Date.....

(Reverse—8 by 5 inches)

Closing Date for Filing Applications. Since the objective is to obtain as many candidates as possible, applications should be accepted up to the last date feasible. In some instances it may be possible to accept candidates at the first of the series of tests who have not previously filed applications. This procedure has the advantage of including in the group to be examined those mostly recently available and those attracted by the last-minute news stories of the examination about to be held.

Frequency of Examinations for Recruitment. Recruitment examinations should be held at least once each year and more frequently when the need arises. An eligible list for recruits should not be used for more than a year because the new year makes available a substantial number of men 1 year younger in age who may excel those remaining on the old list in other respects as well.

SELECTION TESTS AND STANDARDS

Neither expense nor effort should be spared in selecting the best qualified candidates for appointment. The training of a man to be a competent policeman is expensive and requires not only several months of intensive training, but several years of experience before he becomes of real value to the department. The appointment of unqualified, or poorly qualified, persons is very expensive. One innocuous misfit who is unable to become a good policeman constitutes an economic loss that is usually many times the money cost of the entire selection process for all recruits appointed at that time. The cost to the police department and to the community is substantially greater when the misfit is guilty of misconduct or of well-intentioned but ill-advised acts based on poor judgment; the prestige of the department is then damaged, and great wrongs may be done as a result of brutal criminal acts by the police.

Economy in police service is desirable, and failing to utilize the best techniques in selection for appointment and promotion is extremely expensive. The use of superior procedures administered by the best qualified specialists and technicians should be utilized without regard to cost if substantial police economies are to be effected.

Intelligence. An intelligence quotient of 112 is advisable as a minimum standard in police service. Some police administrators are of the opinion that restricting appointments to men with such a high level of intelligence is inadvisable. They argue that the relatively limited promotional opportunities and assignments that prove challenging to men of such high intelligence are not adequate in number to hold the attention and interest of all thus intellectually equipped, and in consequence those who remain in subordinate positions, assigned to routine tasks, become dissatisfied.

These administrators believe that the damaged morale impairs the *esprit de corps*, deteriorates the service, and causes the resignation of the dissatisfied ones with the consequent evils of a high personnel turnover, *viz.*, impairment of service resulting from the replacement of experienced men by inexperienced recruits and expense in terms of cost of recruitment and training. These administrators reason that the bulk of the force should be composed of men of lesser intellect who will be content to remain on routine assignments that would prove monotonous and dull to the more intelligent.

This view is not considered sound for the following reasons: (1) Not all with the indicated level of intelligence find routine police tasks dull and monotonous. (2) Police tasks, when wisely analyzed and directed, are no longer dull and monotonous. Under inspired leadership, nearly all police duties can be made stimulating and attention demanding. (3) The higher quality of service provided by the more intelligent policeman justifies a higher turnover, which is further compensated by returning to ordinary civilian pursuits persons interested in and informed regarding police objectives and problems and who are therefore helpful in winning public support for the service. (4) When the intelligence of the body of the force is high, competent leadership within the department is assured because well-qualified persons for supervisory and command positions may then be promoted from the ranks. As a general rule, the broader the base from which qualified leadership may be drawn, the higher is its quality. (5) Many police tasks have complex ramifications that involve socially significant problems requiring a relatively high level of intelligence for recognition, analysis, and solution. Intellectually inferior policemen cannot provide the kind and quality of service needed to deal with these situations. Crime prevention in its broadest sense necessitates unusually competent policemen, and progress in this direction will be somewhat in proportion to the intelligence that is brought to bear on these problems.

For these reasons a high order of intelligence should be recruited, and suitably high intelligence quotients should be established as a minimum standard to prevent the appointment of persons who are not qualified to deal intelligently with the many complicated police tasks.

Several departments have demonstrated the feasibility of requiring a minimum intelligence quotient of 112, and the superior performance of the talented officers thus obtained has proved the wisdom of this standard. Experience has shown that the appointment of men with an intelligence quotient below 105 is ill-advised; promotions and assignments to other than routine tasks not requiring superior judgment must be denied police-

men of inferior intellect if impairment of service is to be avoided. A minimum intelligence quotient of 112, therefore, is urged for recruitment.

Candidates should be measured by two general intelligence tests to lessen the chance that some may have become familiar with one of them and thus gain an advantage over other applicants. Sharp discrepancies in relative scores of individual candidates should be reconciled by subjecting these persons to a third general intelligence test; otherwise the lowest score should be taken in deriving the intelligence quotient.

Information Tests. The use of information tests, especially those relating to criminal law, police procedure, and geography of the community, are ill-advised. The objective is to select candidates possessing needed intellectual capacity; this endowment can be measured more accurately by suitable, validated general-intelligence tests than by tests of information which the candidate may have acquired by cramming and quickly forgotten.

Physical Condition. The rigors of police service make important the elimination of physically unfit candidates. The physical and neurological condition of applicants should be ascertained by thorough and extensive physical examinations and laboratory tests. The check of medical standards shown below is suitable. Those who tend to be overweight should be eliminated.

CHECK LIST OF MEDICAL STANDARDS FOR EXAMINATION OF CANDIDATES FOR PATROLMEN³

General Appearance. The applicant must be free from any marked deformity, from all parasitic or systemic skin disease, and from evidence of intemperance in the use of stimulants or drugs. The body must be well proportioned, of good muscular development, and show careful attention to personal cleanliness. Obesity, muscular weakness, or poor physique must reject. Girth of abdomen must be not more than the measurement of the chest at rest.

Nose, Mouth, and Teeth. Obstruction to free breathing, chronic catarrh, or very offensive breath must reject. The mouth must be free from deformities or conditions that interfere with distinct speech or that predispose to disease of the ear, nose, or throat. There shall be no disease or hypertrophy of tonsil or thyroid enlargement. Teeth must be clean, well cared for, and free from multiple cavities. There must be at least two molar teeth to each jaw on each side and these teeth in good apposition for proper mastication. The jaws must be free from badly broken or decayed teeth so far destroyed as to render filling or crowning impossible. Missing teeth may be supplied by crown or bridge-work; where site of teeth makes this impossible, rubber dentures will be accepted. At least 20 natural teeth must be present. Pyorrhea will reject.

³ Prepared by the National Association of Police and Fire Surgeons.

Hernia. In any form must reject. Actual or potential hernia in any form, must reject.

Genitalia. Must be free from deformities and from marked varicocele, hydrocele, enlargement of the testicle, stricture or incontinence of urine. Retained testicles or atrophy reject. Any acute and all venereal diseases of these organs must reject.

Varicose Veins. A marked tendency to their formation must reject.

Arms and Legs, Hands and Feet. Must be free from affections of the joints, sprains, stiffness, or other conditions, such as flat feet, ingrowing nails, or hammertoes which would prevent the proper and easy performance of duty. First (index), second (middle), and third (ring) fingers and thumb must be present in their entirety. Great toe must be present in its entirety.

Eyes. The applicant must be free from color blindness, and be able to read with each eye separately standard test types at a distance of 20 feet. Loss of either eye, chronic inflammation of the lids, or permanent abnormalities of either eye must reject. 20/20 or 20/30 in one eye with binocular vision of 20/20.

Respiration. Must be full, easy, and regular; the respiratory murmur must be clear and distinct over both lungs, and no disease of the respiratory organ be present.

Circulation. The action of the heart must be uniform, free, and steady, its rhythm regular, and the heart free from organic changes. Blood pressure—Systolic maximum 135; diastolic 90; pulse pressure 15 to 50. Brain and nervous system must be free from defects. Epilepsy rejects.

Kidneys. Must be healthy and the urine normal.

Wassermann Test. Will be made before permanent appointment.

A temptation sometimes arises to overlook an apparently minor physical defect in otherwise well-qualified candidates. This practice is to be condemned; the appointment of a man in doubtful health or of questionable organic or neurological soundness almost always proves to be a poor investment. His physical condition frequently results in decreased energy and attention to duty that impair the quality of his service. It results in lost time due to illness, and sometimes in early disability and retirement on pension benefits; he thus becomes a burden on the retirement system and an added operating expense, since another must be selected and trained to replace him at a time earlier than would otherwise be necessary. Doubts relating to the physical qualifications of the candidate should be resolved in favor of the service, not of the candidate.

Strength and Agility. Standards should be established to assure the more-than-ordinary strength and agility that are sometimes required in police service; the staying power of the individual thus measured may reflect desirable psychological qualities in addition to physical endurance. Since strength and agility are not the most important factors in the selection of policemen, however, it seems wise not to establish standards

that will eliminate substantial numbers of candidates nor to give undue weight to the test scores. The primary purpose of these tests is to reveal a lack of coordination, strength, and speed which unfits the candidate for police service. Standards somewhat less than the average for university freshmen seem suitable.

An intelligence test administered to candidates immediately following a grueling physical endeavor, such as a long run with perhaps some obstacles in the course that has left them somewhat physically exhausted, may be justified to ascertain the impairment of the mental faculties under conditions of physical strain, although such tests are not in common use today.

Eliminating the Unqualified. After the standards have been set, the candidates should be subjected to a series of tests and examinations designed to eliminate those lacking the minimum requirements. They may be equally well administered under the direction of a central municipal personnel officer or the police department itself.

The tests and examinations require the skills of a physical education instructor, an investigator, a physician, a neurologist, an endocrinologist, and a psychiatrist. An unusually competent medical examiner, when fully conscious of the exacting needs of police service, may make the first physical examination and select from the apparently acceptable ones those he considers should be examined more critically by a neurologist, endocrinologist, psychiatrist, or other specialist.

The expense of the tests and examinations varies, some requiring more time or more costly specialists or laboratory services than others. Since the number of candidates becomes smaller as the hurdles are cleared, the tests should be arranged in the sequence shown below in order to eliminate the unqualified at a minimum expense and loss of time. Legal restrictions and the rules of central personnel agencies may require that the candidate be permitted to complete the entire series of tests. Otherwise this wasteful procedure is avoided, eligibility for taking the next test in the series being predicated on successfully passing the preceding one. The same holds true in reference to the component parts of the physical examination which should be given in such order that simple and inexpensive examinations may eliminate unfit candidates before they are subjected to more expensive phases of the examination, such as laboratory tests and neurological and psychiatric examinations. For example, physical measurements of height, weight, and chest expansion may be made during the tests of strength and agility.

The Written Tests. Properly designed written tests should be given first because they eliminate a larger percentage of the candidates and are less expensive to administer than the other tests. While the general-

intelligence tests are the most important of the written tests, there are also included in this category social-intelligence tests and other group tests designed to reveal important psychological facts relating to the personality of the candidate.

Strength and Agility. Tests of strength and agility require more time than the written tests since they are individually applied, and consequently they are correspondingly more expensive. They should, therefore, be administered only to those who successfully pass the written examination.

Physical, Neurological, and Psychiatric Examination. Physical, neurological, and psychiatric examinations must be individually made by highly skilled specialists and laboratory technicians. In consequence they are more expensive than those previously mentioned and should only be given to those who are not eliminated by the previous tests.

Character Investigation. A thorough character investigation is one of the most important and expensive steps in the eliminative process and should be limited to those who have successfully passed the preceding tests. The character is one of the less objective factors, and it cannot be measured in percentage points; either the applicant has suitable character or he must be eliminated. The intangible nature of character makes it no less important; the expenditure of considerable effort and money is justified to assure that the character of the candidate is suitable for police service.⁴

The fingerprints of the candidate must be cleared through the F.B.I. and state bureaus and a search made of police records locally and in other cities in which the candidate may have resided. A personal interview must be held with the candidate himself and also his employers, teachers, associates, friends, relatives, and other persons who may have information bearing on his character and reputation. The immediate family of the candidate should be interviewed in their home, and their reaction to police employment must be discovered, especially in the case of the candidate's wife or fiancée. Criminal behavior and insanity on the part of relatives should also be ascertained. As a part of the character investigation, the candidate should be subjected to a lie-detector test.

Since character is an intangible quality not susceptible to measurement in degree, and since lack of suitable character qualifications will eliminate the candidate from further consideration, important judgments must be made on the facts revealed by the investigation. This is not a difficult

problem for central personnel agencies in recruiting for other branches of public service; convictions on felonies and offenses involving moral turpitude serve as a convenient and easily applied rejection indicator which may meet the needs for eliminating those of unsuited character in other branches of public service.

In police service, however, the character of the candidate is a matter of more significant concern. When decisions must be made to reject or approve those who have given some evidence of unsuited character by acts less clearly and decisively established than by felony and moral-turpitude convictions, sound judgment must be used to preserve the integrity of the police service and to deal fairly with the candidates. Examples follow of situations that may be discovered that will necessitate such judgment. A candidate had been found guilty in police court and assessed a \$25 fine for siphoning gasoline from a parked car when he was eighteen years of age. Another had been charged with shoplifting, but the case was dismissed by the complainant. Another, while an applicant for appointment to the police department, was arrested and convicted on a charge of reckless driving at 80 miles an hour in an effort to elude a pursuing police vehicle. Another, as a youngster, was involved in an unfortunate case with a sex pervert. An unmarried candidate was a correspondent in a divorce action. Another, when a juvenile, was charged with burglary but acquitted. Another was known to have driven around town shooting out street lights with an air rifle when eighteen years of age, although charges were not brought against him because of lack of evidence. Still another was active as a student in an organization having strong Communist leanings. Another, as a Halloween prankster at the age of twenty-one, was guilty of extensive property damage, which was paid for by his father.

In the absence of a central personnel agency, responsibility for such judgments clearly rests on the police. Because of their training they will usually make wise decisions in these matters, especially when they resolve doubts in favor of the department. Central personnel agencies do not usually have a corps of qualified investigators to make suitable character investigations, and consequently character investigation by them is frequently of a perfunctory "mail-order" type that relies heavily on references supplied by the candidate. When the personnel agency is under the control of the chief administrative officer of the city, and especially when it is staffed with competent persons interested in the recruitment of the best qualified candidates, the problem can nearly always be resolved by the police undertaking a character investigation and reaching decisions on their findings acceptable to the central personnel director. When this degree of cooperation is not found, the police chief

is confronted with the important necessity of conducting the character investigation to his satisfaction and of refusing to appoint those whose character is unsuited to police service, even though subjected to strong pressure to do so. The chief renders an important service to his community when he avoids the appointment of persons of unsuited character as policemen.

Personality. The evaluation of the personality of the candidate involves more than an appraisal of personal qualities by an oral board, in a manner to be described later. As considered at this point, the procedure should be designed to discover emotional instability or immaturity and personality conflicts that make it difficult for the person to work successfully with others. As in the case of character, the personality of the applicant in these respects is usually either acceptable or unacceptable and not good or bad in degree; it is an intangible quality that is not susceptible to appraisal in terms of exact measurements.

Social intelligence and some other factors that comprise the personality of the individual, however, are susceptible to measurement by means of psychological tests. Psychological tests of personality for use in competitive examinations, however, may be subject to error because the candidate sometimes gives the answer he believes will enhance his chances of employment instead of the true one. Tests that permit alternate choices on such a basis do not seem suitable for selection purposes, although they may have considerable value as clinical devices. To meet requirements for personnel selection, the test should require some competitive effort in order to avoid false answers. Further, the test should have demonstrated that it actually measures what it purports to test. A psychologist and a psychiatrist may both assist in an appraisal of the personality and may utilize a number of psychological tests on both a group and an individual basis.

Further appraisal of the personality should be made by the character investigator who should seek examples of behavior known to persons interviewed that may give evidence of emotional weaknesses and personality defects that may unfit the candidate for police service. Such candidates should be given a careful psychiatric examination.

Personal Qualities. The intangible personal qualities of the candidates should be appraised either by an oral board or by selected members of the department in longer and more leisurely personal interviews. One interview suffices for appraisal by all oral-board members, thus giving this procedure the advantage of speed which makes its use almost imperative when the number of candidates is great. The use of an oral board also permits the department to utilize the services in this capacity of citizens with special qualifications and prestige. An examining board

which includes some citizen members also avoids the charge of favoritism. The composite judgment of a suitably selected board which includes outside members as well as members of the department is likely to provide a more accurate appraisal than a board drawn entirely from the department.

The oral board should restrict its attention to personal qualities that may be appraised during a short interview and should not attempt to evaluate factors more accurately measured by other means. Included in the latter category are knowledge, education, intelligence, strength, and agility. Neither should it attempt to judge character, loyalty, honesty, dependability, initiative, ability to get along with people, and other characteristics that require a longer observation and more reliable information than are obtained in a short interview. While the oral board may detect extreme weaknesses in judgment, emotional stability, and resourcefulness, it is not likely to discover the less extreme but equally undesirable cases.

Each board member should record, on Form B or a similar sheet, his appraisal of the personal qualities under consideration. At the conclusion of each interview, each board member should estimate an independent over-all percentage score for the candidate based on the appraisal of all personal qualities. At the conclusion of the meeting, the personnel officer should average the over-all percentage scores given by all board members to each candidate.

A private and informal interview of each candidate by a number of commanding officers who have ability to judge men is considered superior to the oral-board interview for appraising the personal qualities of the candidates. Any form of questioning the examiner may consider useful should be used in arriving at an opinion regarding the personal qualities of the candidate. Each examiner should submit, in addition to Form B, a written report on his conclusions including a positive recommendation to reject or appoint the candidate.

Appraisals made in this manner are more thorough than oral-board evaluations, which are usually based on a 15- or 20-minute interview. When made by commanding officers in whose judgment the chief has confidence, the evaluations will carry more weight than the appraisal by an oral board that may be open to the charge that it went through the routine motions without the concentrated attention that is ordinarily given by someone with a greater interest and responsibility in the final result.

The Final Selection. From the group of candidates who have successfully passed the battery of mental and physical tests, and whose character investigation and oral appraisal indicate they are suitable material, must

FORM B. PERSONAL QUALITIES RATING SHEET *

Candidate's name..... Date.....

	Clearly unsuited (40-60)	Do not endorse (61-69)	Endorse (70-79)	Endorse willingly (80-89)	Endorse with confidence (90-100)
<i>Appearance, Manner, and Bearing:</i> Will his appearance, manner, and bearing help or hinder him in this job? Gain or lose respect for him? Will he be impressive when speaking to his men? Civic groups? Other law enforcement officers? In conference and interviews? Does he appear to have the necessary command presence? Drive? Stamina?					
<i>Ability to Present Ideas:</i> Will his ability to express himself be adequate for this job? Is he logical, convincing, persuasive? Or does he ramble, or get confused, or talk vaguely, or get verbose?					
<i>Social Adaptability:</i> Is he at ease, friendly, and confident? Will he have the tact and adaptability necessary to deal with public officials, irate tax payers, co-workers, etc., under trying conditions? Or would he tend to be submissive, overbearing, or impatient?					
<i>Alertness:</i> Does he grasp ideas quickly, or does he appear to be slow to understand? Do his responses indicate that he would be quick to understand the problems in this job or would he understand only the more obvious points?					
<i>Emotional Stability:</i> Will he have the emotional balance necessary for this job? Is he too sensitive? Easily frustrated? Is he cool-headed and steady, or would he tend to blow up in an emergency? Could his subordinates or co-workers count on his behavior or would he tend to be erratic?					
<i>Judgment:</i> Will he consider all the facts before reaching a decision? Will he know when to act and when to get more information before acting? Will he know when a situation justifies departure from policy, and when it doesn't? Would you trust his judgment?					
<i>Adequacy of Background:</i> Will his background fit him for the duties of this position? Is his experience sufficiently broad and extensive that he will have an adequate background upon which to draw?					
<i>Over-all Evaluation:</i> In making your over-all percentage rating, consider all the above factors and any other pertinent personal qualifications which he may possess or lack. Do you think he is qualified for the job? How good would the Police Department be if each incumbent of this job were of the same caliber as this man? To what extent does he measure up to what you consider to be the ideal man for this job? Your over-all percentage rating should express approximately the degree to which this candidate's personal qualifications, as observed by you during this interview, meet the requirements of this position.					

Over-all percentage rating.

Rater's signature.....

* This form is adapted from one developed by the City of Berkeley.

be selected those best qualified for appointment. The difficulty of prescribing formalized procedures for evaluating the intangible personal qualities that are not susceptible to numerical scoring nearly always results in overevaluating the objective, tangible qualities. The results obtained in the eliminative tests are used as guides in the final selection, but temptation must be resisted to give weight beyond their actual value to variations in objective qualities merely because such variations are easily ascertained and recorded by arithmetical scores. Procedures that assign a weight to the score obtained in each test and make the final selection on the basis of the total are based on the assumption that the man who makes a perfect score is perfectly qualified. The fallacy in this assumption lies in the fact that while a minimum standard of intelligence must be established, those who exceed the minimum qualification may not qualify for police service in proportion to the degree of excellence; intelligence tests are probably not accurate to such a fine degree, and the added increment of intelligence as reflected in the test score may not be so important a consideration in appraising the all-round qualifications of the candidate for police service as some of the less tangible qualities. The same situation prevails in the case of tests of strength and agility. It is important that an officer be sufficiently strong and agile to apprehend fleeing culprits and to handle unruly prisoners, but it does not follow that the candidate who has broken Olympic decathlon records or has excelled in other sports is that much better qualified as a policeman.

A procedure that seems to be fair to the applicants and at the same time that provides desirable flexibility to adjust for detected weaknesses is one that ascertains the relative standing of each candidate by arranging all of them in a descending order of their scores in each of their written examinations, in their total strength and agility scores, and in their total personal appraisal scores, and then ascertains the combined relative standing for each by adding his positions in each of these lists and dividing by the number of lists or scores. For example, if a person stood second, fourth, sixth, ninth, third, and twelfth in six lists, his average would give him sixth place in the list of combined relative standings. The personnel officer should then examine critically all documents relating to each candidate, especially those reporting on his character and personality and the results of his physical, neurological, and psychiatric examinations, to ascertain whether information is contained therein that did not warrant rejecting but which would seem to justify moving the candidate up or down in the list, thus providing an adjusted combined relative standing. The previously mentioned application card (Form A) provides convenient spaces for recording this information.

Probation. Some police administrators fail to recognize probation as an important step in the selection process. While the best testing procedures are highly effective in eliminating the incompetent, the tests have not reached the stage of perfection that precludes the possibility of the appointment of some candidates who are unsuited to police service. The final test must be trial on the job. Full advantage should be taken of the opportunity afforded by the probationary period to eliminate those who demonstrate unfitness in training and on the job.⁵ Such elimination is especially important in departments where testing procedures are poor, for it is difficult to remove unqualified officers after they pass the probationary period. A failure to remove incompetent and otherwise unsuited probationers is a mark of weak leadership; a police chief who does not avail himself of this opportunity to complete the selection process cannot complain that he is denied personnel control.

The probationary period should be for 1 year. Some weaknesses and incompetence may not be discovered in a shorter time; a longer period may damage the morale of the probationers. During the probationary period special attention should be given to the supervision and rating of the probationer to assure that weaknesses are discovered. Records of accomplishments and service ratings should be made at least quarterly by supervising officers in a manner to be described later. High standards should be established to assure the elimination of the incompetent, and doubtful cases should be resolved in favor of the department. This requires personnel evaluation.

Chapter 20

PERSONNEL EVALUATION AND PROMOTION

It must be understood at the outset that the appraisal of individual policemen is extremely difficult. The procedures recommended herein are not perfect but are considered more reliable and equitable than an evaluation based purely on the opinion of one man, who in some instances may have had no opportunity to observe the officer at work. The need for personnel evaluation is so great as to justify continued effort and experiment by police personnel officers to evolve an improved procedure. The experience of police departments that have made earnest effort to appraise their personnel seems to indicate that the procedure must be kept (1) simple if it is to be used effectively and (2) objective if the results are to be reliable.

The value of the individual policeman to the service must be appraised in order to discover officers best qualified for promotion and to detect deficiencies for the purpose of overcoming weaknesses and avoiding them by improvements in selection, training, and operating procedures. The appraisal must be in terms of accomplishments and human relationships. Three kinds of information are needed: (1) Incidents that indicate the possession or lack of desirable qualities. Supervisors should be alert to observe and report significant occurrences. (2) The opinions of supervising officers regarding the presence or absence of desirable qualities and the less tangible personal characteristics of subordinates. A rating system should be used to record and analyze these views. (3) Accomplishments. A system should be devised for fairly and accurately recording and tabulating the performance of individual officers in suitable form for comparison with the accomplishments of other officers. Fair comparison is unusually difficult when the officers work at different tasks or at different hours or locations.

Desirable Qualities. Before considering methods for obtaining the above information, study should be made of qualities desired in police service that merit more than usual consideration and weight in appraisal. Of all desirable characteristics, none is so important as the qualities of leadership; these attributes assure superior performance by patrolmen, and promotions should be given to those who excel in leadership. The qualifications of a good leader are discussed at greater length in the final

chapter. Attention here is directed primarily at their analysis for the purpose of establishing procedures helpful in their evaluation.

Leadership attributes may be considered under four heads: (1) *physical* qualities, such as appearance, voice, energy, and courage; (2) *emotional* qualities, such as stability, dependability, self-confidence, initiative, willingness and ability to delegate authority, ability to get along with people, persuasiveness, sympathy, lack of prejudice, interest in work, enthusiasm, and the will to do; (3) *mental* qualities, such as intelligence, sound judgment, resourcefulness, alertness, decisiveness, and know-how; (4) *ethical* or moral qualities, such as loyalty, integrity, morality, fairness, and willingness to accept responsibility and blame, to back subordinates, and to give credit.

The qualities of leadership are not so sharply divisible into the four categories as shown above, however, because many have their source in more than one of these four basic attributes or conditions. This is especially true of characteristics that seem to have their principal source in the emotional and in the ethical nature of the man. For example, it is difficult to establish whether such characteristics as the lack of prejudice and the willingness to accept blame and to give credit have their primary source in the ethical ideals of the individual or in his emotional state. Likewise judgment, while primarily a mental attribute, is influenced by the emotions and by ethical concepts. There is both a physical and a moral courage, and a physical and nervous energy; while physical courage and nervous energy probably have physical sources, they are reflected in the emotional state rather than in the physical condition of the man. Initiative probably is based principally on the emotional condition of the individual, although it is undoubtedly influenced by the intellect and the physical condition.

The following paragraphs discuss methods for obtaining the previously listed information and analyzing it to discover the most competent officers and to detect those deficient in leadership qualities and in performance.

Incidents That Indicate Desirable Qualities. Leadership in subordinates is best evaluated in terms of incidents, observed and recorded by their supervisors, that give evidence of the presence or absence of the desired qualities. Each leadership quality is composed of so many traits of such diverse nature as to make the evaluation and weighting of the component factors difficult, and consequently such effort results in an unnecessarily complicated undertaking with resultant inaccuracies that might be avoided by the more direct appraisal of significant incidents. For example, the ability to get along with people is dependent on such characteristics as courtesy, tact, poise, voice, demeanor, facial expression, self-confidence, friendliness, helpfulness, consideration, unselfishness, in-

tegrity, fairness, and a great many other factors, many of which are not easily defined or recognized. To analyze and evaluate each of the component traits seems unnecessarily complicated and inaccurate, since some influential characteristics will be overlooked, false appraisals will be given to others, and inaccurate weights will be assigned to all. For example, some desirable traits, such as self-confidence, may impair social acceptance when they appear in an exaggerated degree. Also, while courtesy is a factor in getting along with people, other more important traits are also needed, and in consequence a man may have a Chesterfieldian air and yet be so deficient in other less tangible factors as to render him socially difficult. In such a case, a rating based on courtesy may indicate that he should have social ability, whereas he may be a miserable failure in getting along with people. For this reason a more accurate appraisal of the man is made by establishing that he does, or does not, get along well with people. The end result (the ability to get along with people) is desired, and it can usually be detected and evaluated most easily in terms of incidents that reflect its existence.

The factors that result in sound judgment are likewise so many and varied as to make their isolation, definition, and evaluation difficult. The desired quality is sound judgment, and the presence or absence of this quality is most accurately detected and evaluated, in an officer who has met the basic recruitment requirements and who has been under the close supervision of competent superior officers, by incidents that demonstrate the soundness of his judgment. These incidents should be discovered at the time of their occurrence by supervising officers and, when suitably recorded, are available for a fair and reasonably accurate appraisal of the quality of his judgment.

Supervising officers should be alert to discover incidents that reflect the presence or absence of the desirable qualities listed in the summary of significant incidents below (Form C). Detailed information regarding such incidents should be included in their daily reports by the patrol sergeants and in written reports to the personnel officer by other superior officers as the incidents come to their attention.¹ In reports of incidents that reflect to the discredit of the subordinate, the supervising officer should state what action he took for the purpose of remedying a weakness or otherwise preventing a recurrence.

The summary of significant incidents includes those that reflect the important leadership qualities, except appearance and voice, intelligence,

¹ A discussion of procedures helpful in discovering significant incidents and in evaluating important characteristics of officers (service ratings are described below) is found in "Direction and Supervision" in Chap. 26.

FORM C. SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT INCIDENTS

Officer.....

Furnish on separate sheets and attach hereto the pertinent facts, including names, dates, and case numbers when possible, of incidents in which subject officer is reported to have shown deficiencies in or unusual qualities of the following characteristics. Cross out words that do not apply.

1. (a) Loyalty, (b) integrity, (c) moral courage, (d) physical courage, (e) morality, (f) fairness, (g) reliability (dependability).
a. None. See attached sheet. e. None. See attached sheet.
b. None. See attached sheet. f. None. See attached sheet.
c. None. See attached sheet. g. None. See attached sheet.
d. None. See attached sheet.
2. (a) Judgment, (b) decisiveness.
a. None. See attached sheet. b. None. See attached sheet.
3. (a) Emotional stability (patience and concentration), (b) self-confidence (desirable aggressiveness, self-assertiveness, self-reliance, self-direction), (c) initiative, (d) resourcefulness.
a. None. See attached sheet. c. None. See attached sheet.
b. None. See attached sheet. d. None. See attached sheet.
4. Willingness to: (a) delegate authority, (b) accept responsibility and blame, (c) back subordinates, (d) give credit to others.
a. None. See attached sheet. c. None. See attached sheet.
b. None. See attached sheet. d. None. See attached sheet.
5. (a) Ability to get along with others, (b) persuasiveness, (c) sympathetic, (d) unprejudiced, especially regarding minority groups.
a. None. See attached sheet. c. None. See attached sheet.
b. None. See attached sheet. d. None. See attached sheet.
6. (a) Interest in work, (b) enthusiasm, (c) alertness.
a. None. See attached sheet. c. None. See attached sheet.
b. None. See attached sheet.
7. (a) Physical or nervous energy, (b) will to do (persistence and determination).
a. None. See attached sheet. b. None. See attached sheet.
8. Citizen complaints. None. See attached sheet.

Signature of personnel officer..... Date.....

and knowledge. Appearance and voice are not readily evaluated through incidents; intelligence can be most accurately appraised by an intelligence test, and knowledge by an examination.

Service Ratings. A service rating, Form D, should be prepared by superior officers once each month or quarterly on probationers and once every 6 months on other subordinates. All the previously listed qualities

FORM D. SERVICE RATING

Officer being rated..... Assignment.

Length of time subject officer has been under your supervision.....

Number of officers to be rated by you this period.....

In considering each of the following qualities, divide the officers of the same rank you are to rate into three groups, placing 80 per cent of them in the average group with 10 per cent above average and 10 per cent below average. When the number of subordinates is more than one, there should be at least one in both the upper and lower 10 per cent. Put a cross in the column in which you have placed subject officer in considering each quality.

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Better than average</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poorer than average</i>
1. Judgment
2. Decisiveness and self-confidence.....
3. Reliability (dependability).....
4. Emotional stability.....
5. Resourcefulness and initiative.....
6. Ability to get along with people; persuasiveness.....
7. Work attitude and enthusiasm; interest in work; quality of work.....
8. Alertness.....
9. Energy and will-to-do (persistence and determination).....
10. Requires little supervision.....
11. Probable success as supervisor.....
12. Over-all ability.....

Have you smelled the odor of alcohol on subject officer's breath when he reported on or off duty or while he was on duty since the last report was submitted? Yes No.....

How many times has subject officer not been punctual since the last report was submitted?

Signature of rating officer..... Date.....

of leadership are included in the rating form except (1) appearance and voice, which usually do not change a great deal during the life of a man and may be evaluated with other personal qualities at the time the officer is being considered for promotion rather than each 6 months; (2) intelligence and knowledge, which are omitted for the reasons given in the paragraph above; and (3) all ethical qualities, physical courage, willingness and ability to delegate authority, sympathy, and lack of prejudice, because the rating officer cannot render an opinion without an actual incident to support his view, in which case the incident is recorded in the summary of significant incidents. In contrast to these, the qualities listed in the service rating may be evaluated by supervising officers without the need for recording a supporting incident, because

conclusions regarding these qualities are usually based on less tangible things—things that may be sensed rather than proved by an actual incident. The presence of an incident (recorded in the summary) assists in forming and supporting the opinion.

The personnel officer should assist in the preparation of the service ratings and should discuss each subordinate with the superior officer on the basis of the rating and the summary of significant incidents in an effort to obtain an accurate appraisal of each man. As a general rule a favorable or unfavorable incident should place the officer being rated in either the above- or below-average column for the quality reflected.

The rating sheet is arranged in a manner to force the superior officer to designate 10 per cent of his men as the most competent and another 10 per cent as the most deficient in each factor. Those who consistently remain in the upper bracket should be considered for promotion and for special assignment, while those who consistently remain in the lower bracket are those who need special training, reassignment, and when on probation, consideration for separation from service.

Superior officers should submit a report at the time of each rating stating what action they took, in the case of the officers placed in the poorer-than-average column, designed to remedy the weakness or otherwise correct the unsatisfactory condition.

Records of Accomplishment. Monthly tabulations of the accomplishments of individual patrolmen should be prepared by the records division from patrol sergeants' daily reports and other police records.² The personnel officer, by means of an evaluation of these tabulations, should establish relative ratings of patrolmen working the same shifts. The relative ratings should arrange the patrolmen in a descending order of excellence of performance and not attempt a percentage rating for each. To do this is not easy. Consideration of factors in which an officer may infrequently have an opportunity to demonstrate his ability and of factors that may vary substantially because of differences in conditions on the various beats raises questions as to the validity of the conclusions. To attempt to derive a weight for each beat in order to adjust these differences entails an amount of work that does not seem justified. Consideration of too many factors also unduly complicates the appraisal, probably impairing rather than enhancing the validity of the final result. Unless the procedure used is reasonably simple, it will collapse under its own weight.

The number of Part I crimes, of arrests that clear Part I crimes, of property recovered, of stolen cars recovered, and the traffic citation and

² For a description of these reports and a discussion of their use, see *Police Records*, pp. 160-163.

warning index (see Chap. 9) for each patrolman are suitable factors to consider. The relative standing of each officer for each factor is in direct proportion to the number of incidents, except in the case of Part I crimes when it is in inverse ratio to the number. The over-all relative standing of each officer may then be established in the previously described manner (see page 352), corrected by the personnel officer with the approval of the head of the patrol division on the basis of other factors included in the tabulation that may justify moving an officer up or down from his relative position when compared with others in the list. Factors that should be considered for such adjustment include outstanding arrests, failures to recover stolen cars abandoned on his beat and to discover doors left open or nonresidence burglaries committed on his beat, and good and poor investigations and reports.

The follow-up officer should submit to the personnel officer each month (1) a list of patrolmen and a list of detectives, containing approximately 10 per cent of each, whose reports reflect superior ability to investigate, handle, and report difficult situations, and (2) similar lists of those whose reports reflect inferior ability.

The accomplishments of officers engaged in special assignments in vice, juvenile, traffic, records, and communications work are extremely difficult to evaluate, especially when the number engaged at comparable tasks is so small as to make comparisons between them difficult, if not impossible. Evaluation of the accomplishments of superior officers are discussed later (see pages 363-364).

SELECTION FOR PROMOTION

Promotion in police service means advancement to a position of leadership. The first promotion of an officer is normally to a supervisory position (from patrolman to sergeant). Later promotions involve command positions with greater responsibilities in the establishment of department policies and procedures. In the selection of a patrolman, qualities of leadership should be sought above those needed in the performance of the usual patrol tasks. The presence of leadership qualities in the members of the force assures a superior accomplishment of police duties and provides a reservoir of leadership talent to be drawn on for promotion.

In the selection of patrolmen to be promoted to the rank of sergeant, care must be exercised to choose those who possess the greatest potential qualities of leadership, and not necessarily those who have displayed the greatest proficiency in their duties as patrolmen. From the group of sergeants will subsequently be selected those for advancement to higher responsibilities of command. It is extremely important for the depart-

ment to have at each level in the chain of command an adequate number of officers who are well qualified for advancement to higher positions.

Selection for promotion presents greater difficulties than the selection of recruits. It is also more important. In spite of the firsthand knowledge of the characteristics of promotional candidates by their supervising and command officers secured through person-to-person contact and through observation of their work, conduct, accomplishments, and attitudes, the present methods used for detecting and accurately measuring the necessary qualities of leadership are seriously inadequate. Promotions should invariably be given to the men best equipped to perform the duties of the higher position and not to those with restricted leadership potential, i.e., a limited ceiling that makes it unlikely that the candidate would ever be qualified for advancement beyond the position under consideration. Neither should promotions be given as a reward for faithful service or for acts of heroism, except when the recipient is best qualified. The advancement of subordinates over the heads of their superiors damages morale and should be avoided except when the qualifications of the subordinate definitely excel those of his superiors; then there should be no hesitation in promoting the most able candidate.

Ignorance of personnel practices and policies damages department morale, and consequently promotional procedures should be made known to all members of the force. When officers understand the basis of the selection, they are better satisfied with the results and are in a position to offer suggestions for improving the procedure.

Length of Service. Length of service should not in itself be given consideration in the selection for promotion except when all other factors are equal, which will rarely be the case. Length of service, when advantageous, will be reflected in higher qualities of leadership. For example, length of service may give a candidate better judgment, greater self-confidence and decisiveness, greater knowledge, an improved ability to get along with people, an increased persuasiveness, and a lessened prejudice. Since these factors are being rated, the underlying cause receives credit. On the other hand, length of service may be disadvantageous as when it results in diminished energy, initiative, enthusiasm, interest in work, and willingness to accept responsibility. The underlying cause then gets the discredit. Consequently mere length of service by itself should not be given credit toward promotion.

Basic Qualifications. The supervision and command of intellectually superior persons by an intellectual inferior usually damages morale, destroys *esprit de corps*, and otherwise impairs police service. Candidates for promotion who have not been selected as recruits in the previously described manner should be subjected to intelligence tests, which other-

wise would not be necessary. An intelligence quotient of 112 should be established as a minimum requirement for promotion.

Written Examinations. As a general rule, police departments rely too heavily on written tests of knowledge in selection for promotion. Especially is this true in large departments and in those under the influence of central personnel agencies. The popularity of the written test as the principal device for selecting policemen for promotion arises from a sincere desire to make the selection on a merit basis freed from political or departmental favoritism. The written test is easily administered, it provides a numerical score, and it seems fair in the sense that the candidate can blame only himself for an unsatisfactory result. Suitable tools and procedures to assist in evaluating other desirable qualifications have been slow to develop, and it is not surprising, in consequence, that selections for promotion have been based largely on written tests of knowledge. Departments that fail to develop procedures for objectively appraising leadership qualities in terms of demonstrated performance must continue to rely heavily on the written examination.

When candidates for promotion have met sound requirements in recruitment, the presence of physical, mental, and emotional qualities suitable for police service is assured. The candidates are a select group, and the needs for promotion are met by choosing from them those who possess superior leadership qualities. Of all the previously listed leadership qualifications, only the possession of knowledge seems susceptible to appraisal by written examination in this carefully selected group, and some other device must be used to evaluate the other qualifications.

Without discounting the value and necessity of the possession of knowledge by persons in positions of leadership, a little consideration makes apparent that there are other more important qualifications. Although the acquisition of great knowledge may reflect some of the other qualities, such as interest in work, enthusiasm, and energy, it seems that even these, as well as all the other qualities, may be more accurately evaluated by other means.

Evaluation of Personal Qualities. Except in promotions to the top two or three echelons (captains, assistant chiefs, and chief), the facts indicate that an oral board cannot, in the relatively short time at its disposal, evaluate the personal qualities of a candidate as accurately as the composite evaluation by all the supervising officers who have observed the work of the candidate over a period of time. There is need for an oral board at the upper echelons for the reason that there will be relatively fewer supervising officers able to report on each candidate and, in some cases, the reporting officers will themselves be competitors. The previously described Form B (see Chap. 19), used for

rating the personal qualities of candidates for recruitment, should be prepared on each candidate for promotion by each officer superior to the candidate who has rated him during his service.

Establishing the Relative Standing of Candidates. Candidates for promotion should be arranged in a descending order of excellence in separate lists based on (1) the average relative performance standing as determined by accomplishments, (2) the average service ratings that reflect the opinions of their supervisors, (3) personal qualities, and (4) a written examination. The relative standing in service ratings is ascertained by considering all rating sheets and assigning a value of 1 to each above-average quality, of 2 to each average quality, and of 3 to each below-average quality. The items are averaged, the result being between 1 and 3. The average rating thus serves to establish the relative standing, the lower the score the higher the rating.

A composite relative standing is then derived in the manner previously described (see page 352). The personnel officer then examines all summaries of significant incidents (Form C) and adjusts the relative standings on the basis of these findings. The chief is then presented with the original lists of relative standings, a list showing the composite relative standings, and the adjusted list with the summaries of significant incidents in support of the adjustment. The chief should make selections for promotion from this list.

Promotion of Superior Officers. A semiannual service rating and summary of significant incidents should be prepared for each superior officer. Superior officers should be selected for promotion in the manner and on the basis used in selecting patrolmen for promotion, *i.e.*, accomplishments, service ratings, personal qualities, and written examination, with adjustment made in the relative standing on the facts revealed by the summaries of significant incidents.

Accomplishments of superior officers, however, must be based on their performance as supervising officers, *i.e.*, in terms of their judgment and control of subordinates, including (1) the ratings made by them of officers who have been promoted and of officers who have been dismissed from service, analyzed to ascertain the soundness of judgment displayed, (2) their success in discovering and reporting significant incidents relating to their subordinates, (3) their aggressiveness in taking and reporting needed corrective measures against subordinates, and (4) the performance ratings of their units as compared to performance before they took charge. While these facts are not so readily susceptible to exact measurement as the items considered in appraising patrolman performance, a critical analysis will enable the rating officers to arrange the candidates in a relative order of merit with a reasonable degree of accuracy.

Superior officers give greater attention to the performance of their duties, especially those relating to ratings and to the needed correction of subordinates, when they understand that their promotions will be based in part on their accomplishments as supervising officers (see page 369). The overzealous supervisor, like the subordinate, may go beyond the bounds of sound judgment in an effort to establish an excellent record, and this must be considered in evaluating his record.

Trial on the Job in Promotions. Probationary service in higher ranks in the manner in which probation is used as a part of the selection process in recruitment is not feasible. An equivalent trial on the job is possible, however, especially in the rank of sergeant, but with diminishing opportunity at higher levels, by the preparation of tentative promotional lists, based on service ratings and records of accomplishments, from which officers may be selected for service in the higher rank in an acting capacity. There is continuous need for acting sergeants for relief during the absence of the regular sergeants, due to rest days, annual and sick leaves, and assignment to other duty, such as acting lieutenant.

Trial on the job presents opportunities that should not be overlooked for training the officer for his future position and for evaluating his demonstration of leadership. Special attention should be paid by supervising officers to performance by an officer in an acting capacity in order that his record may accurately reflect his leadership ability.

When those who have filled higher ranks in acting capacities have been wisely selected and have demonstrated competence on the job, they logically may be selected for promotion. Selection of the best qualified should be made, however, from the entire group of candidates.

RESEARCH

Extensive research of scientific analytical techniques for measuring human attributes and evaluating their significance as success indicators in the selection of men for appointment, special assignment, and promotion in the field of police administration is needed. The police personnel officer has a professional responsibility to make and publish studies of results achieved in the use of testing, examining, and evaluating techniques in terms of the relationship between facts revealed and the quality of general and special police service rendered. Scientific tests may thus be developed that indicate leadership and other traits needed in police service. Scientific techniques also may be thus developed and applied to other phases of personnel administration.

The following problems that should be solved by such research are given as examples; the list is by no means exhaustive.

1. Development and refinement of performance records and service ratings and their interpretation. The accurate appraisal of the value to the service of the individual officer is a basic need, not only for the wise assignment and promotion of those who have demonstrated their ability on the job, but also for the accurate evaluation of the validity of physical, psychological, biochemical, and other tests for pretrial selections for recruitment, assignment, and promotion. The evaluation of a selection procedure is difficult, if not impossible, without an objective criterion that will fairly rate the persons selected as to their on-the-job value to the service in terms of accomplishments and human relationships.

2. Analysis of the value of physical tests, such as of strength, agility, and endurance, as success-prediction devices. Do those who excel in strength, agility, and endurance make better policemen and better police executives than those who do not? If so, is their superiority as policemen and leaders the result of these physical qualities or because of related or more basic factors, such as (a) the good health and great energy usually possessed by those who excel in physical tests, (b) the self-confidence that usually grows out of the possession of these physical qualities, (c) an improved human relationship (in terms of ability to work with others as a member of a team, for example) that may have been developed as a by-product to the physical development or may have grown out of experiences (such as in organized sports) made possible by their physical excellence, or (d) other personality characteristics traceable to the consciousness of a superior physique and physical ability? If the success of the individual officer is found to be based on these related factors, are the related factors developed in other ways and consequently possessed by some who do not excel in physical tests? Does a man who successfully passes a rigid medical examination have per se a physical body which may develop suitable strength and agility for police service? If so, is there any need for a minimum standard of strength and agility for entrance into police service when a suitable medical examination is given?

3. What reliability do tests of motor coordination and of reaction time possess, and do officers who excel in such tests provide a superior quality of police service? In other words, are these and similar tests needed in the selection process?

4. What relationship exists between fatigue and physical exhaustion, on the one hand, and the mental and emotional reactions, on the other, that may be significant in police service? If such a relationship is found, tests should be developed to evaluate the intelligence and emotional stability of candidates under conditions of physical stress.

5. What relationship is found between emotional stress and mental reactions that may be significant in police service? If such a relationship is found, tests should be devised to measure the intelligence of candidates under emotional strain also.

6. While the following characteristics, desirable in police service, may be measured in part in some tests of general intelligence, are they sufficiently important to justify separate tests for each? Are there tests that evaluate them fairly, and if so, do officers who excel in the tests make the best policemen?

Ability to follow directions	Observation
Ability to organize material	Patience
Adaptability	Persistence
Alertness	Precise thinking
Concentration	Reasoning and analytical thinking
Fairmindedness	Self-assertiveness
Imagination	Self-confidence
Initiative	Self-direction
Interest	Self-reliance
Leadership	Will power
Memory	

7. While psychologists and psychiatrists may utilize psychological tests in arriving at their conclusions, are there group tests which may be administered in the selection process that will reliably indicate important personality deficiencies that would otherwise escape the notice of an oral board and the character investigator? Are there tests that will indicate, on the one hand, suitable emotional stability and, on the other, neurotic tendencies and personality quirks that may cause the candidate difficulty in getting along with people? If so, do those who excel in these tests make the best policemen?

8. Social intelligence is an important asset in police service. Are there reliable tests of social intelligence that may be fairly administered under competitive conditions, and if so, do those who excel provide the best police service?

9. Even with a high educational standard for recruitment, do those who excel in general-information tests, tests of knowledge in civics, arithmetic, and other fields provide a higher quality of police service, and if so, does the test reveal this potential more accurately than a general-intelligence test?

Chapter 21

DISCIPLINE, WELFARE, AND TRAINING

Attention must be given to the discipline, welfare, and training of the force. The maintenance of effective discipline is essential in a police force to control its performance and to promote the efficient and satisfactory attainment of police objectives. It is one of the important constructive leadership tools for eliminating weaknesses and preventing their development. Discipline is not a negative force; it is, instead, a form of training. An undisciplined force is incompletely trained, not in consequence of failure of the formal training program but because of a failure of superiors to train subordinates by requiring them to conform to department rules and procedures.

Discipline is designed primarily for the weak and deficient, although it affects all members of the force because they are all potentially subject to it. It is discussed here because the personnel officer has important duties in connection with it; personnel control is an important part of personnel administration.

Consequences of Lax Discipline. A lax discipline, resulting from a failure to take suitable corrective action, has evil consequences that impair the effectiveness of the force. The members of an undisciplined force lack *esprit de corps*; they suffer from a damaged morale and have a lackadaisical attitude toward their work, their superiors, their department, and the public. The entire force and each unit in it then suffers from a lack of direction or objective; the incompletely trained members are inattentive to duty and guilty of violating department regulations and other more serious delinquencies; they disregard the rights of the general public, and as a group they have the characteristics of a mob rather than of an organized force. The undisciplined force lacks prestige. The public has little confidence in a department and in its leadership when suitable corrective action is avoided except when forced on the chief. Especially is this true when a policeman is brutal, or dishonest, or accepts gratuities, or fails to maintain strict impartiality and permits prejudices to influence him to discriminate against some persons because of their race, color, creed, or social or economic status.

Citizen Complaints against Officers. Citizen complaints against officers should be made a matter of record. Regardless of who may receive the

complaint, it should be referred to the immediate supervisor of the officer for investigation and report, except when its serious nature seems to justify its investigation by the intelligence unit (see Chap. 4) or by some department investigator designated by the chief. Cases growing out of financial and domestic difficulties, and others that relate to the social welfare of the officer rather than specifically to the manner of performance of his police duties, also sometimes deserve exception and should then be assigned to the personnel officer. These cases, however, should almost invariably be discussed by the personnel officer with the officer's superiors, because such matters should rarely be concealed from the supervising officers and never except with the consent of the chief.

Sergeants, therefore, will most frequently make investigations and recommend disposition of citizen complaints against officers. In doing so, they are confronted with the desirability of satisfying the complainant (see Chap. 22) and at the same time doing what is best for the officer concerned and for the service. The adequacy and fearlessness of the sergeant's investigation, his skill in satisfying the complainant, his wisdom in disposing of the incident or in recommending suitable action, should all be considered in rating his qualities of leadership.

The Sergeant, the Key to Good Discipline. Sergeants play a more important role as department disciplinarians than any other rank. Wisely selected superior officers need correctional action less frequently than do patrolmen and others at the level of execution. Sergeants supervise the greatest number of subordinates, including officers who are inexperienced and have not yet been completely trained on the job, and those who have lost promotional opportunities because of weaknesses that need correction. Successful control of subordinates by the sergeants is reflected in an improved quality of work and public relations. In addition to these immediate advantages, subordinates under wise supervision are thus schooled to become more effective superior officers, an important long-range advantage.

Forms of Disciplinary Action. Disciplinary action may be punitive or nonpunitive. Punitive action may involve a special reading assignment, the imposition of overtime duty without compensation, suspension without pay, loss of some part of weekly and annual leaves, a money fine, demotion in rank, and finally separation from service.

Nonpunitive action includes all efforts made by a superior to correct a weakness in a subordinate short of punishment. It is usually applied first and is more constructive and desirable than punitive action. If suitable use is made of nonpunitive forms of discipline, it is rarely necessary to apply punitive measures. Punitive action is seldom constructive, but when necessary, it frequently has a salutary effect on all members

of the force and sometimes, but not always, on the person against whom it is directed.

Disciplinary Responsibility of Immediate Superior. The immediate superior has three important disciplinary responsibilities: (1) to discover the weakness, deficiency, failure, or overt act of a subordinate that indicates the need for corrective action, (2) to analyze all the factors involved in order to decide the most suitable action, and (3) to initiate and, in most instances, to carry out the disciplinary action. In discharging these responsibilities, the superior must act promptly, decisively, and wisely, with the best interest of the service as his guide. He should resist a temptation to postpone action in the hope that it may not be needed. When a subordinate repeats his mistake with the knowledge of his supervisor, the last mistake is the fault of the superior.

Discovering the Need for Disciplinary Action. Personnel as well as procedural weaknesses may be discovered by the previously described inspection procedure (see Chap. 4). Such weaknesses and an account of the action taken by each superior officer should be recorded in the officer's personnel file and used in the manner previously described in evaluating his accomplishments as a superior officer (see Chap. 20). The supervising officer who discovers no weaknesses in subordinates and takes no corrective action is not performing his duties as a supervisor. Each higher ranking officer, in turn, has important responsibilities to see that his immediate subordinates seek evidences of weaknesses and to take suitable action when they fail.

Analysis of Situation. In order to apply correctional action wisely, the superior must analyze intelligently all factors involved in the situation. Has the situation developed from a weakness or failure outside of the subordinate for which he cannot be held responsible? For example, if the fault lies in a defective department procedure or in the absence of a procedure to guide the officer, or in deficient training, or if it is attributable in part to a failure on the part of the supervisor, the subordinate cannot be held completely responsible.

When the cause is not an outside fault but is found within the subordinate, the superior is responsible for ascertaining its nature and how it may be corrected. The fault may be ignorance on the part of the subordinate growing out of a failure to keep himself informed in a manner prescribed by regulation, such as by reading the daily bulletin or other files; it may result from an improper attitude toward the public or from a lack of self-control; it may be in the form of inattention to duty resulting from laziness or lack of interest in the job; it may have been engendered by bad examples set by older officers; or it may have resulted from some other cause.

Application of Disciplinary Action. The superior must immediately take such action to correct the cause of the undesirable situation as lies within his power. The immediate supervisor should have the authority and be required to take and report prompt disciplinary action in all cases that in his opinion should be disposed of by nonpunitive action. When in doubt on this point, his decision should be confirmed by his superior. The objective of the immediate supervisor in taking corrective action should not be to punish the subordinate by reprimand or ridicule but to remedy the weakness by constructive action, almost invariably in the form of a frank, private discussion of the problem with the subordinate.

Disciplinary action in the form of reassignment may be authorized by the commanding officer who controls such assignments, although it should be discussed with the department personnel officer and sometimes with the chief. Punitive disciplinary action beyond that of reassignment should not be undertaken without the prior approval of the chief of police.

The immediate supervisor, when reporting the incident that may require punitive action, should make his recommendation as to what the action should be, and each superior in the chain of command up to the chief should approve the recommendation or make a specific recommendation as to its modification.

Authority to Suspend and Jail. Actions by subordinates may be so serious as to necessitate immediate suspension. Authority for such action should rest with a commanding officer in direct command of the subordinate. The condition of the subordinate may unfit him for continued police duty, as when he has an odor of alcohol on his breath, and his immediate supervisor should have authority to act forthwith. The immediate supervisor should, under all ordinary circumstances, arrange for the commanding officer to examine the offending subordinate and approve the proposed action. The suspension is for the present tour of duty and subject to continuance or other action by the chief or his assistant. Over week ends and holidays it may be desirable for the division commander to rule on the continuance or discontinuance of the suspension.

Actions by the subordinate may constitute an offense that raises a question as to the advisability of formally booking the officer and lodging him in jail. Such action should not be undertaken without prior clearance with the chief or an assistant; the offending officer may be held in an office at headquarters until a decision is reached.

Disciplinary Power of the Chief. The chief should have unrestricted disciplinary power, subject only to the general direction and approval of the administrative head of the city (see Chap. 19). He should guard

this power jealously, and he should use it so temperately and wisely that its continued use will not be jeopardized. When severe disciplinary action is recommended or contemplated, he should appoint a departmental disciplinary board composed of members of the force, none with a rank below that of the officer charged, to review the facts in the case, to make further investigation when necessary, and to submit to him a recommended action. While departmental regulations may establish the relative ranks of board members, it is best that the members be selected on the basis of their competence and fairness and appointed by the chief for each hearing. The use of a departmental disciplinary board in this manner relieves the chief of some of the onus of disciplinary action and it diminishes the likelihood of capricious and hasty action. On the other hand, since it only makes a recommendation to the chief, it does not deprive him of his power of control over his personnel.¹

Appeal from Disciplinary Action of Chief. When the chief has taken disciplinary action subject to the condition noted above, no higher authority should be empowered to force him to reverse his decision. To do so places the chief in an untenable position; from that time on he will have a subordinate who hates him, who is disloyal to him, and who will do everything in his power to put the chief in a disadvantageous position, regardless of the damage that may be done to the department and to the quality of the service.

When the administrative head of the city feels that a dismissal made by the chief was unwarranted, he has no alternative but to choose between his chief and the subordinate; he should not retain the services of both. He should be influenced by the fact that the welfare of the service and the good of the department are more important than the welfare of any one member, and also that the good of the service is more dependent on a wisely selected chief than on a subordinate. Such a situation is avoided when the chief discusses his more severe disciplinary proposals with the head of the city before taking action.

A central personnel agency, operating independently of the administrative head of the city, or an independent appeal board may be authorized to hold a hearing to ascertain the true facts on appeal by a subordinate who has been demoted or dismissed but not for other disciplinary action. The appeal board should not be authorized to modify the disciplinary action taken by the chief; its authority should be restricted to a publication of its findings. Such a hearing provides a suitable safeguard against

¹ The Los Angeles Police Department designates a commissioned officer to serve as department advocate. This officer is charged with the pretrial investigation of disciplinary cases and their presentation to a department trial board known as the Board of Rights.

capricious disciplinary action by the chief; he cannot hope to stay in office following many adverse findings by the appeal board.

WELFARE

The welfare of his men, as influenced by the conditions of service, is an important consideration for the leader because it affects the morale of the force and the desire of individuals to enter and remain in police service. In order to assure himself that suitable attention is given to this matter, the chief must rely heavily on his personnel officer in the formulation of policy relating to the conditions of service and in promoting and planning its implementation.

Conditions of Service. If qualified persons are to be recruited and retained, the conditions of police service must be as attractive as those of other public and private employment. Police salaries and hours of the workweek, annual and sick leaves, sick benefits, and pensions must compare favorably with those in all enterprises that compete with the police in recruitment. The 40-hour workweek should be universally adopted.

Salaries. A salary increment of from 25 to 35 per cent should be provided for each higher rank in order to compensate for the increased responsibilities and superior qualities required and also to stimulate competition for promotion. Provision should likewise be made to increase the salary of officers in every rank at the rate of 2 per cent of base salary for each year of service at that rank until the salary reaches the maximum rate. Advancement in pay within each rank is in recognition of the increased skill and value to the service. It is essential to maintain the morale of those with limited promotional capacities. The salary increase should not be automatic, but should be based on evidence of continued and measurable self-improvement or professional development when facilities for such advancement are available. For example, the increase might be earned by successfully completing designated courses of study.

Overtime Compensation. Although the police nominally work an 8-hour day, the nature of their duties necessitates some overtime work. Overtime may be classified as that resulting from (1) the completion of tasks undertaken during, or growing out of, the normal tour of duty, such as investigations initiated shortly before and continuing beyond the end of the tour of duty and report writing and (2) organized extraordinary police operations and court appearances.

Compensation on a straight-time basis is justified and desirable for overtime work resulting from intermittent and irregular needs in addition to the usual police operations. These activities are a part of the total police job, and pay for them should be recognized as a normal part of

the cost of operating the department. These needs should be met as far as possible by the creation of a special squad (see Chaps. 9 and 25), or by a judicious use of man power when the infrequency of the need does not justify the maintenance of a special squad. Court appearance likewise is a part of the expense of police operations and should be paid for as such. Failure to pay for the time required may result in a failure to make desirable arrests and is especially unfair to officers working shifts on which a large number of arrests are made.

Compensation does not seem justified or desirable for overtime resulting from incidents that occurred during the normal tour of duty. Overtime necessitated by investigations continued beyond the end of the tour and report writing are examples. To provide overtime compensation for the completion of professional tasks places the police in the class of artisans and laborers, and their services on the same basis as piece-work in a factory. On the other hand, when the preliminary investigation is one that may involve much overtime, the relieving platoon should undertake its completion, which it usually may do without difficulty.

Retirement. An actuarily sound pension system should assure the officer of security in old age and protect his dependents against the accident of his death or disability. A suitable pension system has the further advantage of removing from the force those who have outlived their usefulness. The age when usefulness is seriously impaired varies among men and also with the kind of work they perform. For example, patrol service requires greater physical fitness than a command post. Since removal of those whose usefulness is impaired by advancing years is an important purpose of the pension system, it should be administered wisely and courageously to this end.

The pension provisions should be fair to the police, by providing liberal protection against the accidents of death, disability, and old age, and at the same time not unreasonable to the taxpayer. A system that enables a policeman to retire in his prime and undertake the same employment in another jurisdiction while on pension is open to grave question, but must be determined by current practice. Police service must be kept as attractive as any other service, and if other services enjoy such liberal pensions, it may be necessary to provide equal liberality in police pensions.

The pension benefits of a municipality should be under a state retirement system so that a police officer may transfer from one police service to another without losing his pension rights. Interstate compacts should also be arranged to enable the transfer of pension rights from one state to another.

Organizations. Policemen should be permitted to organize but should be prohibited from joining labor unions and other organizations that

may prevent them from performing their duty.² President Franklin D. Roosevelt expressed public policy, as it related to the organization of public employees, in a communication to the president of the National Federation of Federal Employees.

Organizations of government employees have a logical place in government affairs . . . but meticulous attention should be paid to the special relationships and obligations of public servants to the public itself and to the government.

² The police commissioner in Detroit issued the following General Order 593.

To All Members of the Department.

Subject: Police Affiliation with Organizations.

Recently the Fraternal Order of Police and the C.I.O. were denied permission to organize the police department, based on the fact that a police officer affiliation with these organizations would violate his oath of office and place himself in dual allegiance. A police officer's sworn duty demands that he enforce the law on all classes without fear or favor, regardless of his own beliefs or sympathies. To affiliate with these organizations would imperil his position as a police officer. The position of police officer is different from that of other city employees or employees in private employment.

The Michigan Supreme Court has declared that a police force is similar to a military force organized under the laws of the United States and equally as important in the functions it is required to perform. Therefore the following order is issued and placed in immediate effect:

A member of the department is prohibited from affiliating with a labor union or an organization which will in any way exact prior consideration and prevent him from performing full and complete police duty. A member of the department who affiliates with such a labor union or organization will be subject to immediate dismissal.

This order shall not be construed as prohibiting membership in a patrolman and detective association (or like organization) established for the welfare of members of the department

John F. Ballenger, Commissioner

³ The National Institute of Municipal Law Officers made the following summary of the relationship between cities and employee unions in a report entitled *Labor Unions and Municipal Employee Law—A Supplementary Report* [quoted in *Public Management*, Vol. 31, No. 10 p. 278].

1. The right of city employees to join labor unions or become members of labor organizations is generally recognized, although certain classes of public workers are denied this right because of the incompatibility between their duties as public servants and the requirements of union membership. For example, policemen may be prohibited from becoming union members because of this incompatibility.

2. Collective bargaining contracts . . . with labor unions that represent municipal employees are generally held to be in excess of the powers of cities or other public agencies and therefore illegal.

3. The power of a city . . . to "check-off" union membership dues from the wages of employees is a question of statutory or charter authority.

4. Strikes by public employees to coerce governmental action are unlawful and will be enjoined by the courts.

All government employees should realize that the process of collective bargaining, as usually understood, cannot be transplanted into the public service. It has its distinct and insurmountable limitations when applied to public personnel management. The very nature and purpose of government make it impossible for administrative officials to represent fully or to bind the employer in mutual discussions with government employee organizations. The employer is the whole people, who speak by means of laws enacted by their representatives in Congress. Accordingly, administrative officials and employees alike are governed and guided, and in many instances restricted, by laws which establish policies, procedures, or rules in personnel matters.

Particularly, I want to emphasize my conviction that militant tactics have no place in the functions of any organization of government employees. Upon employees in the Federal service rests the obligation to serve the whole people, whose interests and welfare require orderliness and continuity in the conduct of government activities. This obligation is paramount. Since their own services have to do with the functioning of the government, a strike of public employees manifests nothing less than an intent on their part to prevent or obstruct the operations of government until their demands are satisfied. Such action, looking toward the paralysis of government by those who have sworn to support it, is unthinkable and intolerable.

In the Corporation Council of Chicago in the following words summarized its opinion that the police commissioner could legally forbid policemen from organizing a union and affiliating themselves with the labor movement:⁴

1. For many years the Police Department of the City of Chicago has upheld the right of peaceable assembly and petition by countenancing the following organizations of policemen of the city: Chicago Patrolmen's Club, Policemen's Benevolent Association of Chicago, Police Lieutenants' Club, Police Sergeants' Association, and Police Captains' Club.
2. The police officers individually or collectively have no right to strike for any reason at any time under any circumstances.
3. The union does not have the right to insist upon recognition as an exclusive bargaining agent of the police officers, and the city is without power to enter into a contract concerning any of the elements of the employer-employee relationship.
4. The union does not have the power to demand nor does the city have the power to enter into any closed-shop arrangement.
5. The union does not have the right to request nor does the city have the power to enter into a check-off arrangement.

⁴The body of the report quoted an opinion of the Appellate Court of Illinois rendered in 1903: "The police force of the City of Chicago is a quasi-military organization. No one is compelled to belong to it, but whosoever voluntarily engages in such service necessarily limits the right of action which, as a mere private citizen and in no sense a public official, he would have."

6. . . . The City Council . . . the Civil Service Commission . . . and the Police Department of the City of Chicago all possess the power to prohibit police officers from becoming members of a labor union.

In addition to the prohibition of membership in labor unions, policemen should be prohibited from joining any organization that maintains the right of its members to strike, that is opposed to any minority group, that attempts to interfere with the administration of the police force, or that is affiliated with any of the above. Membership in political organizations should not be prohibited to policemen, although they should be forbidden to participate actively in political activities beyond casting their own ballot.

The members of the force should be stimulated to join professional police organizations such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the International Association for Identification, the International Association of Communication Officers, and similar state and regional organizations. Membership should also be urged in police fraternities, such as Lambda Alpha Epsilon, and in organizations of governmental officials of various kinds, especially associations of municipal employees, subject to the restrictions noted above.

The members of the force should be permitted to organize locally for social and other purposes, and facilities should be made available for their use and enjoyment. Grievance committees should be welcomed by the chief of police, and the conditions complained against should be investigated thoroughly and discussed between the chief and the committee and corrected so far as possible. The chief should grant the grievance committee access to the administrative head of the city, the legislative body, or any other governmental, or quasi-governmental body when he feels that the grievance is just and finds its correction beyond his power, but he should stipulate that he must be present at the conference.

TRAINING

Police service, even of the simplest kind, is unlikely to be of a high quality unless the policemen are specially trained. For example, the night-watchman service of trying store doors and windows requires extensive basic training; for this the patrolman must recognize a criminal act and know the elements to be proved in each crime, the rules of arrest and evidence, and the principles of first aid. In addition he must understand how and when to use his police weapons, he must be skilled in the art of self-defense, and he should know how to handle people. Responsibility for traffic, vice, and juvenile-crime control and for pre-

liminary investigations and searches for physical evidence increases the variety of his duties and the number of procedures in which he must be trained.

Purpose of Training. The purpose of training is to assure the performance of all tasks with safety and ease to the officer and satisfaction to the public. This is accomplished by developing such skill and dexterity that each act is performed naturally and semiautomatically with a minimum of conscious physical or mental effort. The act is preceded by a decision; therefore training must provide a background of knowledge acquired through either actual or simulated experiences against which current situations may be related for judgment.

Nearly all police tasks involve people, and the accomplishment of the police purpose necessitates a control of people that is best effected by winning their compliance. An understanding of human drives, inhibitions, emotions, reactions, and attitudes, and of techniques that promote a desirable relationship between the police and the public is therefore an important training objective. Training should also emphasize that the police must scrupulously avoid petty graft, brutality, and prejudice.

Preemployment Training. Preemployment police training at the college level is desirable. As standards of education and recruitment are raised (and they are both being constantly raised), an increasing proportion of police recruits will have college training. Under these circumstances the subject matter of college courses becomes of interest to police administrators, who prefer candidates for recruitment whose preemployment training best fits them for police service.

Since recruits, both today and in the future, will have some college training, it seems wise to provide a course of training that will equip them for police service. For students who intend to enter police service, some universities and colleges provide courses in criminology and allied social sciences, in police and public administration, in criminologic psychiatry, in legal medicine and toxicology, in crime investigation, personal identification, and traffic and juvenile-crime control, and in criminal law, court procedure, and the rules of arrest and evidence. Courses in psychology, social welfare, statistics, English, public speaking, and military science and tactics also have value as a background of knowledge.

A university or college criminology program is also of value to students of public administration, social welfare, and journalism who find courses in criminology useful in preparing themselves for service in their chosen fields. The availability of the courses to other students also is helpful in the dissemination among the general student body of information relating to crime and criminals. These citizens are thus equipped to deal

more intelligently and effectively with problems relating to the administration of criminal justice.

Police administrators should promote police training programs in colleges and universities in their communities, and they should participate by making police facilities available for training purposes. A local department may thus serve as a laboratory for students enrolled in the courses, and arrangements can be made for part-time service with the department as a part of the training program for advanced students.⁵

Department Training. Preemployment training on a vocational level is not being provided on a sufficient scale to influence appreciably the character and extent of in-service training, except in the few departments that recruit entirely or largely from this source. Nor is this likely to be the case for some years to come until police training schools are established in each state.

No matter how extensive vocational preemployment training may become, individual departments must continue to provide recruit training. Lack of uniformity of police policies, procedures, and techniques makes impossible a preemployment training program that obviates the need for in-service recruit training. Since training must meet the needs of the least prepared, the presence of an occasional recruit with professional or vocational preemployment training has little influence on the content of the recruit course. However, as procedural standards become established by general acceptance, training in a greater number of skills may be undertaken by a central school and, conversely, centralized training promotes uniformity in police practices and procedures.

Department training is not limited to training the recruit but must be continued during the entire life of service. Refresher courses in old and new techniques are needed to keep policemen informed on new methods and changes in policy. Training also must be provided for supervising and command officers and for officers engaged in special branches of the service, such as detectives, special investigators, dispatchers, identification officers, records clerks, and so on.

Organization for Training. The organization and direction of department training should be the responsibility of the personnel officer. The time he will spend in actual instruction is dependent on the time he must devote to administrative tasks, the number of qualified instructors in the department and the community, and on his own experience and training as an instructor in the police field.

The administrative and clerical duties in an intensive training program occupy considerable time: Decisions must be made regarding subject matter to be presented and the time to be devoted to each; outlines of subject matter and lesson plans must be made to assure complete coverage and suitable coordination; schedules must be arranged fitting into the work program of the officers and the instructors; equipment and facilities for classroom, gymnasium, target range, and demonstrations must be provided; records must be kept of attendance and examination scores; material must be prepared for classroom distribution; assistance must be provided department and outside instructors in preparation for their classes and in instruction; interest and enthusiasm in the training program must be created and maintained; and orders to initiate the various phases of the program must be drafted.

The training program referred to here is limited to the somewhat formalized instruction having exact objectives with definite planning and preparation for fulfilling that purpose. It does not include continuous training in the techniques, procedures, policies, and programs carried on by specialists, superior officers, or commanding officers. The training officer should facilitate instruction by supervisory officers at roll calls or periodic conferences, and to this end he should aid in the training aspects by preparing useful material and aiding in its presentation, serving as an assistant (not necessarily present) of the officer in charge of the conference or roll call.

A sample of the daily in-service training bulletins used by the Los Angeles Police Department is shown on page 380. Each daily lesson is explained at roll call, and the officers are examined once every other week by the use of an objective-type test. The bulletins are punched so that each officer may file them in a binder for later review.

City vs. Officer Time. A decision must be made regarding whether officers should be required to attend training school on their own time or city time. Recruit training should be on city time for two reasons: (1) A recruit should not be assigned to duty alone until he has been trained. He may be confronted on his first tour of duty with a situation which would tax the ability of the best trained and most seasoned officer, perhaps one that may require a decision whether to take a human life. An unwise decision may cause the officer to forfeit his life, or result in action for which he may be adjudged guilty of manslaughter. Such responsibility is too enormous to impose on an untrained recruit. While limited time may make complete training impossible, the recruit should be provided with basic principles to guide him before he is placed on his own resources. (2) The amount of time needed for the recruit train-



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C. B. HORRALL, CHIEF OF POLICE

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PRIVATE PERSON'S (CITIZEN'S) ARREST--SOME PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS - I

"Citizen's arrest" is actually a misnomer as the laws governing arrest apply to private persons and peace officers. The term "private person" includes non-citizens as well as citizens. Correct legal terminology would be "private person's arrest," however when "citizen's arrest" appears in this text it shall be understood to refer to an arrest by a private person.

A survey recently conducted within this Department indicates that the problem of proceeding with arrests made by private persons confuses more field officers than any other single police activity. Considerable research of this subject has been made. The confusion in procedure concerning arrests by private persons usually arises when misdemeanor rather than felony offenses are involved. Arrests by private persons, and the duty of officers to receive arrested persons, can be divided into three major considerations: practical, legal, and procedural. This lesson and the one which follows deal with some of the practical considerations.

The officer's part in receiving a prisoner as well as the complaining party's limited knowledge of the law are discussed in this bulletin. Stressed is the importance of considered judgment on the part of the complaining party as opposed to the understandable and usually prevalent emotional judgment.

MISDEMEANOR OFFENSES: The problem of arrests by private persons usually arises when a private person has witnessed a misdemeanor violation and wishes action taken against the perpetrator. If the officer has not witnessed the violation, he cannot make the arrest when summoned by the private person.

FELONY OFFENSES: When a crime complained of by the private person is a felony, the officer can usually make the arrest under his own authority to make felony arrests. A private person, however, has even broader powers of arrest on felony cases than in misdemeanor cases, and the peace officer has the same obligation to receive the prisoner.¹ This lesson and the other lessons in this series will deal mainly with misdemeanor offenses.

RECEIVING ARRESTED PERSON: While the officer has no authority to arrest for misdemeanors not committed or attempted in his presence, he does have an obligation to accept a prisoner legally arrested by another person. In cases where the officer cannot make the arrest, he should remember that he merely receives an arrested person; he does not assist in the arrest. The officer should make clear to all parties concerned that he is not making the arrest. An officer's duty to assist in a private person's arrest, when the arrest is being resisted, and when the arresting person summons assistance, will be covered in a subsequent bulletin on legal considerations. All police reports connected with a case in which an officer receives an arrested person from a private person should clearly indicate that the private person made the arrest, and that the officer merely received the arrested person.

THE PRIVATE PERSON: Most persons are reluctant to have another arrested. Policemen are constantly made aware of this by the difficulty they experience in obtaining witnesses. However, when an offense affects the citizen's person, property, or his loved ones, it stimulates his emotions and affects his judgment. When emotionally upset,

FIG. 2.

a person will usually demand action against an offender. It is wise for an officer to try to calm the complaining person before the unalterable decision to arrest is made. The officer should try to make the complaining person see things in the same light that he will see them "tomorrow."

THE PRIVATE PERSON'S KNOWLEDGE OF LAW: Most persons have but a meager knowledge of the laws of arrest. They are not sure of their powers of arrest, and they have an exaggerated opinion of the powers of a peace officer. They feel that the officer should "Arrest that person!"--and that if the officer does not do so he is not doing his duty. The average person knows but little of post-arrest procedure, i.e., detention, complaints, and court appearances. Therefore, it is the duty of the officer called to make a misdemeanor arrest not committed in his presence to inform the complainant of the laws of arrest. He should also inform the complainant of the post-arrest procedure.

It is indicated, then, that the officer answering a citizen's arrest call should include the following three steps in his preliminary handling of the case. He should survey the facts, calm the concerned persons, and inform all parties of proper arrest procedure.

(This lesson was prepared by the Field Training Unit in collaboration with Mr. Boyd Taylor, Deputy City Attorney.)

¹Penal Code, Sec. 836 and 837.

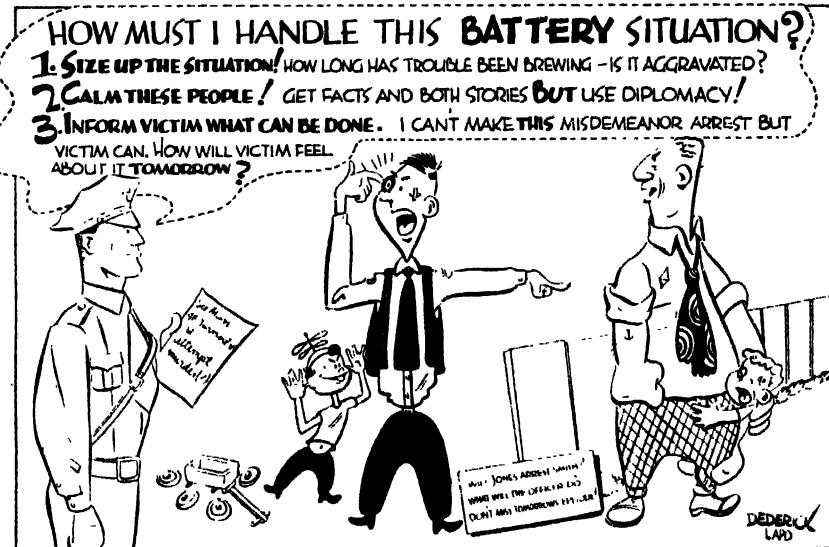


FIG. 2. (Continued.)

ing program is considerable, and not to provide compensation would be unfair to the recruit and his family, would damage morale, and diminish the efficiency of the officer both at work and in training.

Continuation and special training should also be provided on city time, although compensation is not so imperative as it is for recruits undergoing training. Full-time training must obviously be on city time. The choice between full-time and part-time in continuation and special training is dependent on (1) difficulties involved in making a work schedule that will permit part-time participation on city time; (2) intensiveness of the course (extensive training will be extended over an undesirably long period when on a part-time basis); (3) the advisability of taking men from active duty for a period of from one to several weeks each year; (4) the availability of instructors (in a full-time program the services of outside officers for aid in instruction are usually more readily and conveniently arranged); (5) the size of the city (in a city with many substations over a wide area a full-time training program simplifies the problem of mobilizing the officers at a central point); (6) the fact that the more formal, full-time program is less likely to be disturbed by interruptions arising from emergency needs demanding full police man power.

Length of School Day. A decision must also be made regarding the number of hours each day to be devoted to classroom instruction under a full-time program. The fatigue resulting from many hours devoted to lectures, especially in the case of officers some years removed from schoolroom experience, diminishes the effectiveness of instruction. Not more than 8 hours of instruction should be provided each school day and these should be relieved by an extended lunch period. Included in the 8 hours are subjects such as gymnasium, range, typing, and public speaking, which do not require the continued concentration of the usual lecture. These subjects should be timed to provide relief from fatigue and thus avoid diminished concentration, interest, and attention. For example, public speaking may be given during the hour immediately before lunch; the lunch period may be followed by range practice or typing. Limited range and typing facilities sometimes make desirable instruction in both subjects during the same hour, half of the class being instructed in one, and the other half in the other, during each half period. In addition, extension of instruction in these subjects over a longer time may be desirable for other reasons also. The period devoted to gymnasium should come at the end of the classroom day, since it is physically fatiguing, which consequently induces drowsiness, and time is required to shower and dress.

If home study is required, and the men are examined on their homework, the number of hours of instruction should be reduced. In any event, officers should be supplied with printed and mimeographed material which they should be expected to study on their own time.

Utilizing Available Facilities. The department should utilize all available resources in organizing its training program and in providing instructors. In some states, boards for vocational education provide this assistance and also provide teacher training. The F.B.I. in their regional and local training programs provide both organization of subject matter and instruction.

Persons are usually available in every community who, although they have not had actual police experience, are more competent to provide instruction in subjects not of an exclusive police nature than the police themselves. The following are some of the subjects included in this category: legal medicine and toxicology; criminologic psychiatry; the American Red Cross first-aid course; public speaking; report writing (journalism and English); typewriting; self-defense; some phases of public relations and photography; most, if not all, phases of legal training.

The legal staff of the city and county are available for legal training. Federal and state police agencies are able, and usually pleased, to provide instructors in their specialties. Instruction in subjects of an exclusive police nature, especially those unique to municipal police service in which Federal and state officers are inexperienced, present a special problem. The training officer must give such instruction himself or utilize the officers of the department as instructors, aiding them in organizing and presenting the material.

Subject Matter. Recruit training is the foundation for good patrol service and for continuation and special training. A minimum of 3 months of recruit training seems justified, and more time could be used to advantage. Shortage of man power and other local considerations, however, may prevent some departments from devoting 3 months to recruit training.

Field Training. After a sufficiently complete training in classroom, range, and gymnasium to familiarize each recruit with basic principles and the nature of the more fundamental police problems, he should be given some actual experience in patrol during his training period. This should be under the guidance of field instructors selected on the basis of temperament, attitude, experience, and demonstrated good practices. Recruit manuals containing outlines to guide these instructors enable the field instruction to be integrated with classroom training and discussion and thus assure complete coverage and suitable coordination. Check

lists with columns permit entries indicating when a procedure has been (1) explained and (2) demonstrated to the recruit, and (3) when it has been performed by him.

During the field training period an hour each day should be devoted to a short verbal report before the class from each recruit on his experiences during the previous patrol period. This permits others to profit from the experiences of the few who may have witnessed incidents that occur infrequently or may have found themselves in unusual situations. This period also provides an opportunity for explanation and instruction relating to these experiences, for training the students in public speaking, and for an evaluation of their interest and enthusiasm in the job and ability to express themselves. Field and classroom instructors should be alert to detect personality conflicts, and recruits giving evidence of emotional weaknesses should be given a psychiatric examination.

Continuation and Special Training. In addition to recruit training, a continuation training program should be provided. It should be designed each year to meet current needs arising from changes in policies and procedures, the adoption of new techniques, and weaknesses in the recruit program.

An adequate and up-to-date police library should be maintained with a simple procedure for withdrawing material and facilities for study at headquarters. Officers should be kept informed of additions to the library and encouraged in its use.

Officers should also be induced to keep physically fit. Gymnasium facilities, including handball and squash courts, encourage attention to physical condition.

Advantage should be taken of training facilities in the community and elsewhere in the country. Some state departments of education provide regional schools for basic, advanced, and special training. There are also institutes that provide both long- and short-course in-service training. Northwestern University Traffic Safety Institute holds an annual 9-month Traffic Institute; the University of Southern California provides a 3-month Institute in Delinquency Control twice each year; shorter institutes of 1 or 2 weeks' duration are held in many parts of the country to train persons engaged in a variety of fields related to the administration of criminal justice.

Many universities and colleges offer courses at night designed to meet the needs of persons engaged in law enforcement; some also provide correspondence courses. A variety of other courses are available at these and other educational institutions on subjects of interest to persons engaged in the administration of criminal justice; included are courses

in English and public speaking; political science; public administration, including personnel administration; psychology; and social welfare.

These courses offer members of police departments an opportunity to complete their undergraduate study and to work for higher degrees. They also may serve as evidence of measurable self-improvement on which salary increments might logically be based.

Chapter 22

PUBLIC RELATIONS¹

Public relations is concerned with the development of a public attitude favorable to the accomplishment of the police purpose. The attitude of people toward the police is molded by every experience they have in observing, talking to, and in being served and controlled by the police. Every policeman, therefore, unconsciously plays a major role in creating public reaction to the police, be it for good or bad.

There is some justification for combining public relations and personnel administration in a single unit. Since they are both vitally concerned with police personnel, they have much in common. A suitable personnel administration, through wise selection, training, and discipline, promotes the public relations program, and good public relations attracts superior personnel to the police service.

Organization for Public Relations. The chief of a small department must personally direct his department public relations activities and administer his personnel program, while in larger departments he will delegate one or both of these responsibilities to one or more subordinates. For example, in departments of 100 men these duties reach such proportions as to justify their assignment to one full-time man, while in larger departments one or more assistants must be provided, and in somewhat smaller ones, one officer should devote most of his time to these duties.

Continuity of policy, purpose, and program, essential to satisfactory progress, is dependent on the permanency of assignment of these responsibilities. The importance of the job, the amount of work to be done, its dissimilarity to all other police duties, its character which requires special skill and training, and the need for placing responsibility for the performance of these tasks makes specialization imperative. Since the public relations and personnel duties are administrative tasks, the unit (or units when public relations and personnel management are not combined into one) should report directly to the chief or to his assistant.

and should not be a part of an operating or service division. In departments of 250 men there is an amount of work in both training and public relations to justify the separation of these tasks.

Duties of the Public Relations Officer. The mission of the public relations officer is to gain public support for police policies and to win friendly citizen cooperation in department programs and procedures in order to facilitate the accomplishment of the police tasks.

The public relations officer's duties may be divided into four broad categories: (1) to evaluate public opinion and attitudes with respect to the policies, methods, and personnel of the department, (2) to advise the chief with regard to the public relations aspects of new or revised department programs, policies, procedures, and activities, (3) to plan and carry on informational activities to keep the public informed on police activities, and (4) to furnish a staff supervision of all police activities that may influence public support.

The successful accomplishment of the mission of the public relations officer is dependent on an understanding of the necessity for developing and maintaining public support and of the factors that influence that support both favorably and unfavorably.

THE POLICE AND THE PUBLIC

In performing his tasks of evaluating, planning, and supervising department public relations, the public relations officer will devote his attention to two principal fields of activity.

The Individual Police Officer. The appearance, attitude, habits, private life, and public contacts of the individual policeman affect the attitude of the public toward him and the department. Consideration must be given to the elimination of resentment-inducing factors and to the substitution of good-will-producing relationships.

The policies, programs, activities, and operating methods of the several divisions strongly affect public relations. They must be scrutinized, evaluated from their public relations aspect, and perhaps modified.

Informing the Public. Public reporting is an important administrative duty in which the head of the department needs assistance; attention must be given to press relations, to formal periodic reports, to department publications, and to other devices that may be used for keeping the public informed. Public education is related to public reporting. Community groups, designed to assist in the accomplishment of police tasks, also sway public opinion.

The relationship between the individual police officer and the citizen, which is fundamental to public relations, is the subject of this chapter.

The tasks of informing the public on police matters and organizing the community are treated in the following chapters.

Public Support Essential in Police Administration. Public cooperation is essential to the successful accomplishment of the police purpose. Public support assists in many ways; it is necessary in the enforcement of major laws as well as of minor regulations, and with it arrests are made and convictions obtained that otherwise would not be possible. A public that observes laws and complies with regulations relieves the police of a large share of their burden. Difficult programs can be carried out with strong community support, and preferred techniques can be operated successfully in friendly communities. Progressive programs and increased efficiency result in a greater public appreciation of police efforts. Public commendation and praise build police morale, which leads to increased efforts and an improved service. Without public support budgetary requirements for needed buildings, equipment, and personnel are difficult to obtain. Police salaries, relief days, sick and retirement benefits, and other conditions of service are also favorably influenced by a friendly and cooperative public.

Unfortunate are the police who lack the support and cooperation of a friendly public! A hostile public makes police tasks more onerous and working conditions more disagreeable; the police are censured at every move, unjust charges are made against them, and their sound and progressive programs are impeded. When the activities of the police are misunderstood and construed as wrong, their morale is damaged, the maintenance of *esprit de corps* is made difficult, and they develop a negative mental state that causes them to be fearful of undertaking any constructive work. Also, faced with a critical, hostile public, the police unfortunately tend to develop a hostile attitude which worsens public relations.

Relationship between the Police and the Public. Public support and cooperation are influenced by the relationship between the public and their police, that is, by the actions and conduct of each toward the other. The nature of any relationship is determined by the attitudes of the parties involved, because the actions of each are determined by their own attitudes and influence the attitude and conduct of the other. Each must have a correct attitude, therefore, if a desirable relationship is to be created and maintained between them. The attitude of the public is molded and built by the police, and it reflects the police attitude.

While the police themselves are the most important factor in creating public attitudes, there are other influences in constant play. The press and motion pictures exert a powerful influence in molding public opinion, and they may, through misrepresentation, create an attitude which is

unfriendly and unfair. Strong personalities within a community, if not converted to the police point of view, may likewise do much to destroy public confidence in the police, to build resentment, and to prevent the creation of a desirable rapport between the police and the public. The police, however, may even influence these factors by proper attitudes.

The Police Attitude. Since action is strongly influenced by frames of mind, the police must scrutinize their own viewpoint to be certain that it is a proper one. Their attitude will be influenced by their concept of the police function—of their duty to the public. All members of the force must recognize that the people, through their representatives, hire and pay the police and that, as in any other employment, there must exist a proper employer-employee relationship.

The police must understand that the essence of a correct police attitude is a willingness to serve, but at the same time they should distinguish between service and servility and between courtesy and softness. They must be firm, but also courteous, avoiding even an appearance of rudeness. They should develop a position that is friendly and unbiased—pleasant and personal in all nonrestrictive situations, and firm and impersonal on occasions calling for regulation and control. They should understand that the primary police purpose is to prevent violations, not to arrest people. And they should recognize the line of demarcation between police and court functions.

The Public Attitude. A public that cooperates with the police, that supports them in their efforts, and that observes laws and regulations may be said to have a desirable attitude. The police administrator is confronted with the task of creating this greatly-to-be-desired attitude. Its development is impeded by a traditional fear of the police, by the errors in judgment of individual policemen, by unpopular police action in the enforcement of unacceptable laws and of regulations that offend individuals, by the consequences of refusing to grant special favors to important persons, by press attacks and political pressures, by a public not interested in public affairs, and sometimes by the necessity of overcoming an unsatisfactory police reputation.

The problem is similar to that met daily in business and industry. A worker desiring a promotion works harder and makes it evident that he has done a better job; he bends his efforts toward establishing a suitable relationship between himself and his employer. A businessman wishing to increase his sales tries to build good will; he sells better merchandise, increases the demand for it through advertising, and satisfies his customers. The principles involved in creating the desired relationships between the police and the public are simple and readily applied, although the hoped-for relationships are not always easily and quickly achieved.

Building Good Will and Avoiding Resentment. Good will is as essential to success in police operations as it is in commercial enterprises. Business firms expend large sums of money in developing good will, and they train their employees in carefully-thought-out procedures designed to eliminate resentment-provoking situations and to promote good will. They have found that employee courtesy pays big dividends. Police departments should undertake similar programs.

Public good will is developed by positive action; it is not wished into being by hopeful thinking. Methods and procedures that will bring about agreeable relations with the public must be developed. A department guilty of bad practices toward its citizens may meet apparently impenetrable resistance to the development of a suitable relationship, but the stronger the resistance, the greater the importance of breaking it down. There are many nonarrest activities that have special value in building good will, and small courtesies and special services will go far toward improving the standing of the police in the eyes of the community.²

Positive steps must likewise be taken to avoid resentment, whether in dealing with an individual or a group. The police should critically examine their own conduct in all public contacts and remodel it to avoid situations unnecessarily unpleasant to citizens. They cannot hope to retain the friendship of the public if their conduct is unfair and unreasonable and if they unnecessarily embarrass, humiliate, annoy, and incon-

² "The police have kindly words and helpful advice for anyone in doubt or trouble who comes to them . . . they fulfill an immensely beneficial social function in finding relief for the destitute, in tracing missing relatives, and in smoothing out family quarrels, misunderstandings, and estrangements of every kind.

"It may be argued warmly, in some quarters, that the rendering of such services is no part of the duties and functions of the police. The answer is that the friendliness, confidence, respect, trust, and affection that they receive from the people are almost the sole basis of the power and efficiency of the police of Britain. Whatever tends to strengthen this relationship, strengthens and maintains the vitality of true democracy in Britain. Whatever tends to loosen the bonds of the public's relationship with the police, in the form of thoughtless, ignorant, or malicious criticism of them; neglect of their principles by the police, or by the authorities who are responsible for them; or the ill-considered introduction of mechanical or other organizational changes which lessen the scope for contact between the individual citizen and the policeman on the beat must lessen, also, the power which the police derive from the public's appreciation of them. Any material decrease of this power will quickly lead to their increased dependence on the use of physical force; to the need, by central authority, of endowing them with despotic powers to enable them to fulfill their tasks; to police dependence, not on being liked by the people, but on being feared by them; and to the opening of a short road for the transference of their organization into the only alternative form of police which is available."

venience the public. The public will justifiably resent ruthless campaigns that grow out of futile police efforts to meet their own inefficiencies, which are patently unreasonable.

THE INDIVIDUAL OFFICER

Each person judges the police department by the individual members with whom he has had contact, and his opinion of the force is influenced by his reactions to these personal experiences. Consequently, attention should be given to the personal appearance, attitude, conversation, and conduct of each policeman. Procedures must be developed that are designed to build good will and to avoid creating resentment, and officers must be trained in their use. Each member of the force must be brought to realize the influence of these factors on the citizen's opinion of him as a man and of the department he represents; pride in his organization and in his position in it is thus developed and he will then conduct himself with the dignity of his office.

Appearance. A police department should maintain a high standard of efficiency and it should give evidence of it by the businesslike attitude and conduct of personnel at headquarters and on the street. The police officer should give conscientious attention to his duties; he should neither talk unnecessarily to passers-by, nor stand for a long time in one location; he should not sit in his parked automobile, but should stand on the curb or patrol the immediate vicinity within hearing range of his radio. At headquarters he should not roughhouse, visit with brother officers, crack jokes, or otherwise amuse himself in corridors or offices open to public view, or indulge in loud, boisterous talk that can be heard by the public. Such activities should be restricted to assembly and recreation rooms lest the public conclude that he is loafing on city time.

The appearance of police quarters has an important influence on the attitude of the public and the police; both react unfavorably to a foul-smelling, dark, poorly kept, and unclean police station. Police offices should give a businesslike appearance and create an impression of efficiency. A place should be provided for material and equipment, and these should be stored there when not in actual use. The tops of desks and filing cabinets and the floors in the corners of offices should be kept free of papers, boxes, and other material. An appearance of idleness must be avoided, and the office staff should not put their feet on desks or other office furniture.

A satisfactory uniform, comfortable for the officer and pleasing to the eye, has a bearing on the morale of the man who wears it, on the *esprit de corps* of the entire force, and on the reaction of the citizen. Personal

cleanliness and body care are equally important. Officers should be required to shave daily, bathe frequently, clean their fingernails, have their hair cut regularly, and keep their clothes in a neat condition of repair, press, and cleanliness. Deficiencies in dress and body care should be corrected by positive action, and failure to do so reflects on department leadership.

Police Conversation. The officer should develop pleasing habits of conversation that give no offense to the listener, either by subject matter or method of presentation. In his conversation he should avoid subjects of a smutty and questionable nature; especially must he avoid controversial questions in religion, race, politics, and law. It is not his responsibility to defend the justice of every law, but he should avoid criticizing legislation, especially that of a local nature.

An officer sometimes overhears conversations uncomplimentary to his department. He should not intrude by springing to the defense of the force but should hold his own counsel. An officer who finds himself in a group where the conversation has turned to criticism of the administration, policies, or individual members of the force should attempt to change the subject of the conversation. This is preferred to discussing the matter, unless the criticism is based on erroneous information that can be easily corrected. Naturally this depends on the company present, the justification for the criticism voiced, and on the officer's ability to refute an unjust criticism.

The officer's language is important, too; sloppy habits of speech with poor diction and faulty English impress the listener unfavorably, as does loud, rough, boisterous talk and conduct. The officer must also avoid giving impressions of officiousness, haughtiness, aloofness, and condescension.

The officer must not use too much of the businessman's time or talk too much. He should remember that the best measure of a good conversationalist is his ability to listen; by listening more and talking less, the officer also obtains more useful information.

Personal Habits. Unpleasant personal habits, many of them quite unconscious nervous reactions, may mar the relationship between the officer and the citizen. He should, therefore, avoid hawking, spitting, tapping his finger or foot, whistling, and giving other outward evidences of restlessness and nervousness that annoy the listener.

The officer must recognize and respect the sacredness of the person of the other man; nothing so irritates some people as to have another person touch them. Consequently he must avoid back slapping, forefinger chest poking, leaning on the shoulder of someone in a group, constant hand shaking, and putting his face close to the face of the man to

whom he is speaking. Whether on the street or at headquarters, officers should not smoke while speaking to a citizen.

Privileges the Police Must Forego. The officer must bear in mind that when he took the oath of office he waived some of the rights and privileges enjoyed by other citizens. As an officer he is not entitled to lead a private life according to his own whims, without regard to public reaction. He must be an exemplary life; the public expects the officer to practice what he preaches and to conform rigidly to regulations imposed on others. He must, therefore, give strict attention to his conduct and reputation; since the public is hypercritical, he must not only avoid evil, but he must avoid the appearance of evil. In his social life he must avoid questionable associates and seek recreation in the company of persons of irreproachable character and reputation. He must avoid domestic difficulties more assiduously than the average citizen; he must not gamble; he must be unusually temperate in the use of liquor, or abstain altogether from its use.

The officer must also forego the privilege of becoming angry. He must remember that there is no law against making a policeman angry; that he cannot charge a man with offending him; that until the citizen acts overtly in violation of the law, he should take no action against him, least of all to lower himself to the level of the citizen by berating and demeaning him in a loud and angry voice. The officer who withstands angry verbal assaults builds his own character, raises the standard of his department, and usually mortifies the citizen in his secret heart.

Developing a Friendly Police Attitude. The mental attitude of the officer is quite as important as his appearance because it influences his conduct and reactions to the public. He must not forget that he is a public servant, and he must maintain a friendly attitude reflecting his willingness to serve.

The officer's business with a citizen can almost invariably be transacted most effectively and satisfactorily on a friendly basis; even in those instances where sterner measures seem required, the well-trained officer will infrequently fail to dispose of the matter in a friendly but impersonal way.

The citizen with whom he is dealing will sense the officer's attitude in four ways: by his facial expression, by his actions and bearing, by his voice, and by the words spoken. The importance of attention to these four expressions of attitude is emphasized when the officer understands the psychological reactions involved.

1. People react physically to the state of their minds and emotions; they give physical evidence of friendship and hate, of fear and courage,

of likes and dislikes. An officer, when confronted by a task or a person he finds disagreeable, will involuntarily give some physical evidence of that dislike which will be apparent, either obviously or subtly, to the citizen.

2. People tend to develop within themselves the emotional or mental state of which they give physical evidence. This is exemplified by the small boy who, late at night, saunters by the cemetery whistling in the dark. While he saunters and whistles, he is not afraid, but when beyond the cemetery he breaks into a run, he arrives home feeling frightened because he gave physical evidence of fear by running. Consequently a suitable feeling toward the public may be promoted in officers by requiring them, in their public contacts, to give physical evidence of the desired attitude.

3. People tend to develop within themselves the emotional or mental state they see evidenced in the person with whom they are dealing. Almost everyone reacts to a smile with a smile, to a scowl with a scowl, to harsh words with harsh words, and to a blow with a blow.

As noted above, the citizen's smile given in response to the officer's smile creates a friendly feeling in the citizen, while by the same reaction, the officer's scowl or unfriendly manner or words create an unfriendly feeling. Thus are public attitudes toward the police influenced by the police themselves. This is why it is so important that the officer give attention to his facial expression, to his actions and bearing, to his voice, and to the words he uses in dealing with citizens.³

Facial Expression. The facial expression should, first of all, be friendly. This does not mean that the officer should go about with a continual grin (although that is preferred to a perpetual scowl), but it does mean that he should greet every person with a friendly smile. The friendly expression will be solicitous when listening to the tale of woe of a person in distress, and it will be attentive when conversing, especially when listening to a complainant or to someone seeking information or assistance.

³ A prominent and successful realtor once observed that an unfurnished house was difficult to sell because its emptiness made it unhomelike. To engender in his client, to whom he was showing an empty house, the desired feeling of respect for a home, this realtor would invariably remove his hat on entering. This practice nearly always resulted in the client removing his hat also, and by this gesture having instilled in him the emotion of respect that is ordinarily accorded a home. Likewise, in admiring the finish of the woodwork, the agent would stroke it tenderly, as he would something he admired and loved, and not poke at it with his forefinger as he might jab at an unsatisfactory article that filled him with some disgust.

Actions and Bearing. The actions, demeanor, and bearing of the officer will likewise give evidence of his attentiveness and of his willingness and desire to be helpful. In contrast to a position at a counter from which he should not rise because his eyes are on a level with his listener, he should not remain seated at his desk when conversing with a citizen; when such position is desired to facilitate note taking or other desk activity, he should arrange for the citizen also to be seated. He should not lounge or lean against a support while conversing, but he should stand erect facing his listener. When someone in a car asks for information, the officer should approach the vehicle and stand in a manner to enable the citizen to hear his instructions clearly. When stopping a suspect, he should take all necessary protective precautions but his actions should not be belligerent. His bearing at all times should be one of self-confidence; he should never betray indecision or lack of confidence in performing his duty. His demeanor should invariably be friendly.

Voice. The voice often betrays the emotional state before other outward evidence is apparent. The officer must not permit evidences of impatience, anger, intolerance, scorn, ridicule, or sarcasm to creep into his voice if he would avoid having them reproduced in the voice of the person with whom he is dealing. The voice should be friendly, it should carry a smile in telephone conversations, and it should be self-confident. No matter how rough the going may become, the officer who keeps his voice at a normal conversational pitch has an advantage over the excited citizen; his voice will not only influence the emotional state of the person with whom he is dealing, but it will influence his own emotional state as well. Even a noisy drunk will usually respond to a whisper with a whisper.

Words Spoken. The choice of words is as important in handling difficult situations as is the manner in which they are spoken. While the officer should be pleasant in his relations with the public, he should studiously avoid wisecracking lest he be misunderstood. When dealing with an irate citizen, he must be especially careful to avoid statements that may be misconstrued, and when his statement is misconstrued, the officer should correct it at once. His words must give further support to his appearance of self-confidence. When seeking information, he should deal with the individual as though it were an established fact that he has the information and that he will give it. This is accomplished by the use of affirmative questions, in contrast to negative ones. For example, he would say "What did you do with the gun?", not "Did you have a gun?" and "Where is Bill Smith tonight?", not "Do you know where Bill Smith is tonight?" or "You don't happen to know where Bill Smith is, do you?"

In dealing with a citizen, he should offer assistance by saying "May I help you?" or "Is there something I can do for you?", not "What do you want?" or "Well—what is it?" He should also observe the common social amenities; the officer who says "I am glad to be of service" to a citizen who has thanked him for information or assistance leaves an impression of courtesy and of willingness to be of service. If, instead, the officer makes no reply or gives his services grudgingly, the citizen feels resentment and will be influenced by it whenever he thinks of the police.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH COMPLAINANTS AND OFFENDERS

Police contacts on the part of many persons are restricted to occasions when they have a complaint to make or are suspected of an offense. In both instances the citizen is likely to be somewhat emotionally upset. For this reason it is important that the police give careful attention to the manner in which they deal with complaints and offenders if the police are to establish the best possible public relations.

Telephone Relationships. In establishing police telephone procedures, the administrator will profit by a study of the methods used by progressive business houses. They invariably give careful attention to the speaking voice of the telephone operator and to the procedure used in receiving calls. The police, too, should consider these two points, although the nature of police service obliges the elimination of unnecessary formalities. The telephone operator is the first contact with the department of the citizen who telephonically requests police service, and this experience should be as pleasant and satisfactory as possible. Particular attention should be given to diction, the correct use of English, and to expressions of courtesy in telephone conversations. Correct enunciation is important, and officers should be trained to speak with deliberate care and clearness to assure the efficient use of this instrument.

Promptness of Reply Essential. Incoming calls at police headquarters are important and deserve prompt reply. A person's life may be at stake. Even in trivial matters, the subject of the complaint is the most important thing the citizen has before him at that moment. Frequently, with nerves on edge, he is in such a mental state that little things annoy him; when kept waiting, he is disgruntled and sometimes justifiably so; and when he receives a busy signal, he is angered and rightly so. Police calls should receive immediate response, even during peak hours; this necessitates an adequate number of trunk lines and trained operators. Provision should be made to handle out-of-the-ordinary peak loads by transferring calls to record clerks when the load becomes too great for

the regular communications staff. Sometimes the failure in prompt reply is not caused by too much business but by indifferent and poorly trained personnel. Commanding officers should make frequent checks by counting the number of rings before their telephone calls are answered in order to curb lackadaisical tendencies.

The Telephone Greeting. Attention should be paid to the operator's manner of answering calls. The greeting should not be slow and indifferent but should be crisp and speedy, to indicate alertness and willingness to serve. The immediate "Police Department" is most satisfactory; it gives all needed information, and when correctly enunciated, it convinces the citizen that the entire department is at his service. The practice in some departments of requiring the desk sergeant to give his name following this greeting is not desirable because the majority who telephone the police are not interested in the identity of the first person who answers, and the unexpected information proves disconcerting. As a general rule these citizens are impatient and want service with the least possible delay.

The officer answering calls transferred by the operator or on a direct line to a police office, however, should identify himself. For example, calls to the detective division should be answered, "Detective Division, Sergeant Smith speaking." Calls to the desk of a particular officer should be received with "This is Lieutenant Brown." But if someone else in Brown's office takes the call, he should state "This is Lieutenant Brown's office." An officer regularly attached to Brown's office and prepared to handle the call himself should add "Sergeant Smith speaking."

Terminating the Call. The complaint clerk should not be in an obvious hurry to terminate the telephone call, but when the rush of business demands his attention, he should transfer the call to a clerk able to devote time to the satisfaction of the complainant. The complaint clerk, however, should not permit deliberateness to develop into indifference; he should manifest an active interest in the case and at the same time direct the conversation so as to be able to cut it off at the opportune time without offending the citizen.

Relationship to Complainant. A citizen calling at headquarters or approaching an officer on the street to make a complaint should be accorded a suitable reception. The officer should indicate by his manner his willingness to be helpful; his demeanor should reveal alertness and interest, not indifference; and his face and voice should be pleasant.

The complaint clerk and the officer on the street should be alert not to ignore a citizen who has a request to make or information to give. The hesitant manner of a citizen sometimes reveals a timidity the officer should dispel at once by putting the citizen at ease; the officer should meet him more than halfway, and give him every opportunity to present

his subject. Unless busy with another citizen, the officer should offer his services by some simple statement, such as "May I do something for you, Sir?" When making this offer, he should not give an appearance of distraction, but should focus his attention on the person he is addressing, thus proving his wholehearted sincerity. He should use the common expressions of courtesy, such as "Sir" and "Madam," and when speaking to an individual whose identity has been revealed, he should refer to him by name. This procedure is courteous, it is flattering, and it helps fix the name in the officer's mind.

Receiving the Complaint. The citizen should be given opportunity to tell his story without needless interruptions, although the officer may, when necessary, assist with intelligent questions and with evidences of sympathy and assurances of aid. The officer should not permit his attention to be diverted to other matters but should look at the citizen while receiving the story and asking questions. Even though the matter is of little or no importance, the officer should take notes and otherwise treat it with respect, since it is of concern to the citizen. When the subject matter requires the attention of some special branch of the service, the officer should avoid giving the impression that he is pleased to have rid himself of the annoyance so readily; the citizen should be referred to the specialist in a manner that leaves no doubt of the officer's interest in the citizen and his complaint.

Complaints against the Department. Policemen sometimes receive complaints against departmental policies, procedures, programs, and acts over which they have no control. When the citizen makes these criticisms for the effect they have on the listening officer rather than in the expectation of corrective action, the officer should refer the critic to suitable authority for audience. When the officer believes that the complainant is sincere in his desire to improve police service or to correct an unsatisfactory condition, he should report the matter to his superior officer. Suggestions considered by a sincere citizen to be of some value to the police should be accepted in the spirit offered, with all possible graciousness, even though the subject matter may gall.

Complaints against Policemen. Commanding officers are sometimes confronted by citizens who complain of the actions of subordinate officers. The complaints are sometimes legitimate and sometimes frivolous and without foundation; in the latter case the officer must not permit a shadow of doubt to appear on his face or in his voice, and he should maintain a friendly attitude toward the complainant throughout the interview. The complainant is usually under nervous tension and emotionally upset over the incident in question. It is well, therefore, to place him at his ease and allow him to get the complaint "off his chest" as soon

as possible; the relief thereby afforded assists him to forget the incident. If he is not permitted to unburden himself in this manner and is treated coldly and without consideration of his rights as a citizen, the incident will assume exaggerated proportions in his mind; an attitude of distrust and resentment will be consequently engendered.

The supervising officer should assure the citizen that the incident will be investigated; however, he should not question the policeman in the presence of the citizen or permit them to meet. He should avoid, when possible, a promise to report to the citizen the results of the investigation and the action taken. If the complaint was correctly received, the citizen will usually forget the incident after he has had time to think the matter over. This does not mean, however, that the commanding officer should do nothing further. A complete investigation should be made and reported to the chief of police, and suitable disciplinary action should be taken if the officer was guilty of misconduct. These results should not be volunteered to the complainant; however, in serious cases it may be desirable to give him the information when he requests it.⁴

Expressions of Appreciation. On receiving any complaint, the officer should thank the citizen for his kindness in reporting it to the department, no matter how trivial the subject may be. Even though the complaint is largely the product of the imagination of some unreasonable person, or against the department or a member of the force, the officer should not fail to express appreciation.

Handling the Offender. In dealing with an offender, the officer finds himself in a difficult position. The situation must be handled so diplomatically that the offender is not unduly embarrassed, yet so firmly as to leave no doubt of meaning in the mind of the violator. A proper attitude is essential to effective accomplishment; it must be positive and pleasant, yet impersonal. It is not the duty of the officer to penalize, embarrass, irritate, lecture, or scold the offender; he should do one of three things: (1) Inform the violator of his offense (this amounts to a warning); (2) give him a citation or notice of violation; or (3) place him under arrest.

The officer should attempt to establish a common ground of understanding between himself and the person with whom he is dealing, who is either antagonistic or quarrelsome, on the one hand, or frightened and perhaps on the verge of hysteria, on the other. When time permits, and time is usually available, the officer should not press his attack when his opponent is physically and emotionally poised for combat until he

⁴ Some police chiefs adopt the policy of not furnishing this information to a citizen except when ordered to do so by higher authority.

has attempted to dispel the belligerency. A common ground of understanding is most readily established by small talk, preferably on a subject in which both have an interest. Sometimes an effective method of creating this greatly-to-be-desired friendly understanding is for the officer to praise or take an interest in something owned by or connected with the subject. The officer may inquire as to the offender's satisfaction with his automobile, if it is a late model or of an unusual make; or he may admire some accessory, or the man's son, or dog, or anything he may have with him (except, of course, a female companion); or he may commend the man on the calm and collected manner in which he conducts himself in contrast to the anger and near-hysteria revealed by most persons.

Officers, in conferences, speeches, and even in dealing with individuals, are sometimes caught on a mental dead center and experience difficulty in collecting their thoughts and proceeding with their conversation. Quick recovery is usually provided by some physical action which may be excused by dropping something in order to pick it up.

Contributing Factors to the Offender's Unfriendly Attitude. If the officer is to deal with the situation intelligently, he must recognize three conditions that frequently aggravate the hostile attitude of the offender.

1. Generally speaking, any police effort to control public action meets resistance; the citizen usually resents being told what he must do and what he must not do. In dealing with him, the officer must avoid criticism, which is a futile control device, and appeal to his finer nature. The well-trained officer overcomes resistance and resentment in some situations by soliciting the assistance of the offender by asking for his aid in overcoming an unsatisfactory condition. Some situations cannot be handled in this manner, however; then the officer has a more difficult task of overcoming resentment, which may sometimes be accomplished by diverting the offender's attention to other matters by small talk while disposing of the incident.

2. The police contact may be a new and terrifying experience for the citizen. There are some who stand in awe of the police and tremble at the thought of arrest and others whose nervous condition is unable to stand the shock of the encounter. These may, in consequence, experience a deep emotional upset that sometimes results in hysteria. This applies particularly to women. To prevent such an outburst and to correct the situation when it occurs, the officer should attempt to put the offender at ease; again small talk may assist in diverting attention and in providing a common ground of understanding, thus relieving an awkward situation and repairing a damage in public relations that other-

wise might be difficult to heal. Frequently, however, the officer has no recourse but to permit the hysterical one to proceed; to do otherwise would aggravate rather than correct the condition.

3. Human beings, caught in some dereliction, are ashamed and embarrassed, and a drive related to the instinct for self-preservation prompts them involuntarily to cover their embarrassment by some act designed to justify their conduct, minimize it, or in some other way to raise themselves in the eyes of observers to their former stature. This is called face saving. The understanding officer recognizes it when, for example, a father out with his young son "tells the officer where to head in" for the benefit of his young audience, whose confidence in his father's invincibility must be supported at all costs, and again when a callow youth out with his girl friend reacts in much the same manner and for the same reason. This officer is also quick to recognize the same impulse in himself when dealing with such situations, especially the latter, when he also will be tempted to save face.

Handling the Traffic Violator. From the foregoing it is apparent that unpleasant incidents are most successfully handled by *soliciting the assistance of the offender*, by *putting him at his ease*, and by *permitting him to save face*. Most offenders with whom the police deal are motorists, and the officer should consider the following points in handling them so as to create minimum resentment.

1. The officer should decide, while stopping the offender, whether the offense will be handled by warning or by citation. This assures that the decision will be objectively based on the observed facts of the violation uninfluenced by the personality, appearance, or words of the offender. If an officer serves a citation in consequence of harsh words spoken by the motorist when he would otherwise have given a warning, he is citing the man for having spoken unkindly, and this he should not do because there is no law forbidding unkind words. Only when he recognizes the motorist as a persistent violator should the officer be permitted to serve a citation after having decided on a warning. Should the offender's words and actions constitute a violation of the law, the officer may arrest and so charge him; the warning, however, should stand as the final disposition of the traffic offense, the arrest being for a quite separate violation.

2. Immediately on stopping the offender, the officer should state in an affirmative way why the stop was made, such as "You were driving too fast," "You ran past the stop sign." Common courtesy demands this explanation.

3. Immediately on stopping the offender, the officer should state what action will be taken, such as "I am going to give you a warning" or "I am going to give you a citation." Most traffic offenders will be given warnings, and informing them at once relieves them of some tension and assists in putting them at ease. For the officer to keep the motorist in suspense in order to punish him for his violation is usurping the judicial function. Also, a better relationship is usually established with the violator who is about to receive a citation when the intended action is communicated to him at once.

4. The officer should not ask questions up to this point; the information should be given in the form of affirmative statements. Questions are unnecessary and invite conversation from the motorist; conversation usually leads to argument, and policemen never win arguments with citizens. The question, "How fast were you going?" may lead the offender to think that the officer does not know and is attempting to trap him into an admission. Such questions invite the citizen to lie; if the motorist states that he was within the lawful speed limit, he has in effect called the officer a liar. Officers should avoid placing themselves in this position because even the best trained are not always able to avoid a feeling of resentment under these circumstances. The impersonal attitude is then lost, the citizen becomes resentful, and an unpleasant situation develops that would have been avoided by a correct procedure.

5. The officer should deal with the offender as briefly as possible without being curt or discourteous so as to avoid unnecessary conversation. The citation or warning should be filled out when examining the license number away from the driver, thus diminishing the opportunity for unnecessary conversation on the part of the motorist.

6. The officer should be courteous and civil. A suitable greeting and farewell, accompanied by a smile and informal salute or wave of the hand, are desirable. The officer should not permit himself to feel that the offender is his enemy, and if the motorist requests information after the incident has been disposed of, the officer should supply it in a friendly manner.

MISCELLANEOUS POLICE SERVICES

The police are in a strategic position to provide a variety of services to the public. The police should be cognizant of the public relations value of these services, and they should perform them in a manner to promote good will most effectively. They are also justified in expanding their services to the general public in order to further improve their relationships.

Supplying Information. The public invariably go to the police for information, and each member of the force should be prepared to supply

it from his knowledge of street locations, streetcar and bus routes and schedules, distances and preferred highways to nearby towns and more distant large cities, the location of special points of interest, such as public and prominent office buildings, parks, schools, hotels, theaters, and the chamber of commerce. Each officer should carry a street guide and directory to assist him in providing information desired by the public.

When information is requested, the officer should ascertain exactly what is wanted so that time is not wasted. He should then proceed to give the information deliberately, briefly, and concisely, in a clear tone of voice. When it is a direction, he should be certain that the location is clearly fixed in the mind of the citizen. If the route is complicated, he should write the directions on a sheet from his notebook and give it to the citizen.

Giving information cheerfully and willingly builds good will, but it will create resentment if the officer scowls, is impatient with the citizen's slowness in understanding, or acts as though he resented being bothered. The officer should look and act as though it were a pleasure for him to be of service; then it will be.

Furnishing Assistance. Assistance to motorists with stalled cars by taking the drivers to a telephone or to a point where service is available or by sending help is greatly appreciated by the distressed citizens and hence creates good will. Other services appreciated by the public consist of sweeping up glass and covering blood spots with sand at accident scenes and of using flares at night and improvised signs during the day to warn motorists of icy or dangerous roadways.

The officer who calls at the hospital to obtain additional information from the victims of accidents can build good will by his solicitous treatment of the victim and by his consideration in notifying relatives and friends, in finding lost property, and in attending to other details that arise when a person has been injured.

Services to Merchants and Householders. Officers should establish speaking friendships with the businessmen and residents on their beats. This relationship creates an information source for the officer, it facilitates a desirable dissemination of police information to the public, it enables citizens to become personally acquainted with members of the force, and it builds good will. Police departments should establish inspectional services designed to lessen crime hazards, and they should furnish information and suggestions intended to protect the people from criminal attack.

Warning Merchants of Criminal Operations. Warnings regarding the operation of fraudulent-check passers, shoplifters, confidence men, short-change operators, and counterfeiters should be given to the merchants on his beat by the officer who learns of them as soon as he has handled

any assignment or has performed necessary police duties in connection therewith. He should give the merchants a description of the criminal and of his method of operation and request them to telephone headquarters if a suspect should appear. The personnel of retail establishments, by group lectures or individual discussion, may be informed regarding the common methods of shoplifting and shortchanging and the points to observe in fixing the identity of a suspect or criminal in mind to assure future identification.

Inspection of Banks and Hazardous Business Places. Banks and other business houses having large sums of money and unidentifiable stock of small bulk and great value, such as jewelry, furs, and tobacco, present hazards that should be inspected by detectives assigned to robbery and burglary cases. The premises and the operating procedures, from the arrival of the first employee in the morning until the last one leaves at night, should be gone over minutely to eliminate any insecurity or unwise practice that might offer a criminal an opportunity for robbery or theft. Apparent needs for alarm systems should be discussed with the proprietor.

Store Inspections. Patrolmen should similarly inspect the security of stores on their beats. By the use of a suitable printed form, the officer may check unsatisfactory items and list recommendations made to the merchant. This record enables a follow-up urging the proprietor to make the suggested improvements and, when filed according to location, readily supplies information regarding the name, address, and telephone number of the proprietor, his manager, and anyone who should be notified in the event of some emergency arising when the shop is closed.⁵

Assistance from Merchants. The officer should seek information and assistance in his police problems from businessmen on his beat. They are pleased when an officer comes to them for advice and counsel. If the officer wants the friendship and cooperation of a businessman, he can win it by getting the man to do something for him. When the officer accepts the assistance and follows the advice, the man becomes identified with the project and considers that he has a vested interest in it, and he becomes interested in the officer as well.⁶

Study of Traffic Hazards. The department should establish a rule that the merit of complaints and suggestions relating to traffic hazards is to be ascertained and a report on the results of the investigation made

⁵ For a sample form and a suggested procedure, see *Police Records*, pp. 82-84.

⁶ An officer should not idly seek advice and assistance for the sole purpose of gaining a citizen's friendship. Neither should he seek it when he knows that he probably would not accept it; a failure to follow requested advice does not strengthen friendship.

to the citizen who offered it. When a suitable study has been made of the situation, it is as easy to prove to a reasonable person that the suggested regulation is not needed as it is to prove that it is needed when the facts so indicate. This practice proves to the citizen that his suggestions are not ignored.

Inspection of Vacant Homes. Some departments, in order to minimize the burglary hazard, keep a special watch on homes made vacant by the temporary absence of the occupant. At the start, this service requires advertising so that the occupant will notify the police of his anticipated absence. The beat officer then inspects the premises on each tour of duty⁷ and sees that the neighbors keep the front porch clear of the usual accumulation of newspapers, advertising circulars, and milk bottles that so frequently indicate the vacant home to the house prowler. When, shortly after his return home, the occupant has a call from an officer who has come to determine the reason for finding the house open, the citizen is convinced that he has received a valuable service. Thus the officer has made a good personal contact, and the department has made a friend.⁸

Meeting the Resident. The foot patrolman in residence sections usually became acquainted with everyone on his beat. The motorized officer is apt to be derelict in this respect, and one department established a novel and effective procedure to assure contact by the officer of some of the residents on his beat. A list of new residents in the city furnished by the chamber of commerce was checked against police records to assure that none was wanted, and the name and address of the new resident and the name of the officer on the beat were typed on a specially prepared leaflet, the front cover of which contained a word of welcome to the newcomer in the name of the officer. The leaflet described briefly the organization, operation, and policies of the department, gave a few suggestions on guarding the home and locking the automobile, and some safety pointers with special reference to school children. It contained specific instructions on action the householder should take in the event of suspicion or trouble: when and how to call the police, how to dial in the dark, and what to do in case of fire.

This leaflet, with a traffic pamphlet and a personal-property identification card described below, was presented to the new resident by the officer in the evening. The officers were schooled in what they were to say so that they could become acquainted with the new resident pleasantly and without giving offense. Many people who otherwise would not have

⁷ Many departments make the inspection on only one tour of duty each day.

⁸ For a suggested procedure and an implementing form, see *Police Records*, pp. 84-85.

done so thus became personally acquainted with the police and with the services of the department.

Identification Services. The noncriminal file established by the F.B.I. presents an opportunity for local police to furnish a fingerprint service to their citizens. Some departments supply citizens who have had their fingerprints taken with a small identification card to be carried on the person, and some maintain their own noncriminal fingerprint file, although the cost is hardly justified. Campaigns to fingerprint citizens have been undertaken by many departments who then maintain a staff at headquarters for this purpose and also, on request, send men equipped with portable kits to business houses, clubs, and other organizations.

Another service rendered by some departments is that of filing, in the general alphabetical index, personal-property identification cards containing the serial numbers of bicycles, watches, guns, cameras, motors, and other privately owned equipment. The owner and the police thus have ready access to essential descriptive information needed if the article is lost or stolen.

Police and the Children. The patrolman should overlook no opportunity to become acquainted with and to win the friendship of children on his beat. A correct relationship established here will influence the child in his development into a mature citizen; it has important crime-prevention value, because it will assure a desirable attitude in the child and will also influence his attitude toward the police when he becomes an adult. Good will on the part of children also results in the good will of their parents.

Many departments arrange special events for the children of their city as a part of their crime-prevention program and also to create good will. Some pay special attention to skating on rivers. Warnings are issued when the ice is not safe, a notice is posted when the thickness of the ice permits skating with safety, proper danger signs are placed at hazardous locations, and fires are built on the shore. Similar supervision may be provided for swimming in the summer. Blocking off streets to permit sledding in the winter and scooter races in the summer, and blocking off traffic and attaching a shower-head to a fire hydrant for summer neighborhood shower baths in poorer residential sections are other methods that have been used. Police-sponsored ball clubs, junior traffic patrols, summer camps for boys, special police boy scout troops, and assistance to civic groups in their efforts to help underprivileged and delinquent children, all have a good-will value. The police, of course, should overlook no opportunity to speak in the schools and before other groups of children.

Chapter 28

INFORMING THE PUBLIC

The informed citizen is nearly always cooperative. He understands the need for control, the purpose of regulations, and the reasons for police policies and procedures; in consequence he complies more readily with regulations and otherwise assists in the simplification of police problems. Experience has shown that enforcement invariably fails when it is not preceded by a broad informative program. The more effective the educational program, the less enforcement that is necessary to maintain suitable compliance.

While the public is kept informed regarding the purpose and justification of police practices and procedures primarily to promote public support, the public is also thereby educated in the manner in which they may cooperate most effectively with the police. The citizen is taught traffic safety to make him a safer driver and a more cautious pedestrian; he is also taught how to lessen opportunities for the commission of crimes by professional and occasional criminals who may attack his family, home, or property, and how to assist the police in the apprehension of criminals.

Failures in police administration are frequently traceable to a lack of public support springing from citizen misunderstanding of police purposes and methods. Resentment and distrust change to friendliness and respect on closer public acquaintance with the police; antagonism gives way to cooperation when they understand each other's point of view. Successful police administration invariably rests squarely on a sound foundation of strong public support.

There are two common misconceptions that hinder police activity in keeping the public informed: (1) that such activity is unethical and (2) that the public will misconstrue it as an effort to build personal prestige rather than to improve police service. These misconceptions are based on a police failure to understand that their success is dependent on public cooperation and that keeping the public informed is therefore an integral cog in the machinery of their job.

PUBLIC REPORTING

An annual report, sometimes consolidated as a section in a municipal report, is intended to inform the community of police problems, accomplishments, and plans. Frequently these reports are limited to difficult-to-interpret statistical tabulations and to poorly prepared and incomplete textual material. Tabulations needed in detailed operational planning and for submission to state and national clearing houses of crime and accident statistics do not present facts in a form suitable for public consumption.

Facts, whether in statistical or textual form, must be presented in an interesting manner that will enable the citizen to interpret them easily and to understand the message conveyed by them. The report otherwise fails in its purpose and represents a waste of time in preparation and of material in publication. A picture is worth a thousand words, and statistical facts can nearly always be charted in the form of line or bar graphs, thus enabling analysis at a glance in contrast to the difficult task of comparing tabulated numbers. Photographs likewise present facts in an easily assimilable and interesting form.

The distribution of these formal reports frequently does not provide adequate or suitable coverage, sometimes because the distribution has not been planned to assure placing the reports where they are most needed.

The formal periodic report described above does not discharge the police chief's responsibility of reporting to the citizens of his community; a number of other devices should be used to meet public reporting obligations more completely and also to inform the public regarding police problems and the regulations and practices designed to aid in their solution. Included among these are more informal and frequent police publications, police displays and demonstrations, and some special contacts with citizens intended to provide an opportunity for them to become better acquainted with their police department. The press, of course, also assists importantly in public reporting.

Police Publications. Department publications are a useful means of keeping the public informed on police activities. When a department relies on commercial advertising to defray the cost of printing, it is possible to publish quite a large magazine, but this practice is not considered wise because it easily develops into a "racket." It is better that the publication be smaller and that the expense be met by budget allotment.

Some departments publish a monthly mimeographed pamphlet. The fact that it is mimeographed seems to offer some advantages because the public is then more inclined to view it as an amateur production

and hence have a greater interest in its contents than if it were a carefully printed sheet. Such a pamphlet is a convenient medium for the publication of police statistics in a readily understood, graphic form, and of articles on traffic, juvenile activities, vice control, crime investigations, department accomplishments, and on important or interesting cases, with credit being given to individual officers for work well done. It thus serves also as an organization publication, helpful in building *esprit de corps* and binding the members more firmly together as a group. News items regarding the private lives and department accomplishments of police personalities promote the house-organ value of the publication; when it is given public distribution, however, not over 5 per cent of its space should be used for this purpose.

A special issue of the police publication may be mailed to a selected list of prominent citizens and to certain groups taken each month at random from the telephone directory. Usually, however, it is cheaper to employ schoolboys on Saturday to make the distribution by hand. A copy left in the reception room of every office in the main buildings of the community and in the barbershops increases the effective circulation. Copies may also be distributed from door to door in the residential section, a different district being chosen each month. Regardless of the method of distribution, a selected mailing list should be maintained to assure copies to city officials and community leaders.

Some departments issue to retail merchants a weekly bulletin warning them of the activity of fraudulent-check passers, confidence men, short-change operators, and shoplifters. These may be distributed by the store detail to large department stores, a sufficient number being furnished to assure a copy for each floorwalker and department head. One or two copies should be mailed to each of the smaller retail merchants.

Some departments have a publication devoted exclusively to traffic, containing a brief summary of the statistical reports prepared for the National Safety Council and a synopsis of findings and conclusions from special traffic studies undertaken to ascertain the need for proposed signal lights or other regulations or roadway changes. Some departments send monthly mimeographed traffic-safety bulletins or leaflets to members of the junior traffic patrols, sometimes also distributing them to the elementary school children. Such pamphlets are a convenient means of instructing children in safe practices in crossing streets, riding bicycles and scooters, and playing in neighborhood lots. Their distribution is best made through the school authorities.

For distribution both at headquarters and by officers on the street, the department should have a supply of traffic leaflets containing brief statements of important traffic rules, diagrams of correct and incorrect

turning movements and hand signals, and other information useful to the motorist. Facts should be well arranged, easily readable, and stated concisely, without legal verbiage. Public-utility companies sometimes cooperate by enclosing traffic leaflets with their monthly statements to all users.

Advertisements. Slogans and posters are excellent devices for broadcasting ideas. Brief, catchy phrases and sentences that are meaningful and impressive often drive home a principle to the public consciousness. When the police department itself is unable to purchase posters, the local safety council or some other community organization should provide them for bulletin boards in the schools, industrial plants, gasoline service stations, and mass-transportation units.

Police departments sometimes arrange with outdoor advertising concerns for the use of spare billboards for traffic posters and slogans. Often merchants who use outdoor and newspaper advertising will incorporate into their display a traffic-safety slogan. Some companies require their stenographers to add a safety slogan as a postscript to each letter or attach stickers bearing safety slogans to letterheads.

THE SPEAKERS' BUREAU

A speakers' bureau is needed to inform the public on the nature and purpose of police activities and otherwise to assist in discharging the chief's responsibility of reporting to the citizens of his community. Speech is an effective method of communication and the personality of the speaker plays an important part in effectively transmitting the message to a group.

Training in Public Speaking. In establishing a speakers' bureau, it is important that the interest of officers should be aroused and arrangements made for their instruction. An excellent training method is to require every member of a class, limited to 10 or 15 students to assure participation by all, to give a 5-minute talk on some police subject. The instruction should cover the organization of a speech and correct enunciation and breathing. The other officers and the instructor should constructively criticize each speech.

Direction and Supervision. One officer should be assigned to direct and supervise the department public-speaking activities. The director should consider the personalities and abilities of officers available for speaking engagements, so that the best may be sent on the most important assignments and the beginners on the less important ones. The director may inform the public of this service through the newspapers, in department publications, and by a mimeographed list of subjects and speakers

mailed to churches, civic clubs, patriotic societies, lodges, labor and professional groups, clubs, schools, parent-teacher associations, and youth organizations.

Selection of Subject Matter. Care should be exercised to select a subject that is most apt to interest the audience. Speeches on traffic furnish opportunities to inform the public on regulations and to train them in good driving attitudes and practices. Church, reform, and some business groups are interested in speeches on gambling, narcotics, prostitution, and liquor-control problems. Businessmen are also interested in the operating methods of criminals who prey on retail merchants, and speeches on burglaries, robberies, and car thefts also prove interesting. All these provide opportunities for the police to advise the citizen on how he may cooperate in lessening the opportunity for successful crime.

Demonstrations and Displays. Demonstrations and displays in the lobby or anteroom of the hall where the speech is to be given, before the meeting convenes and after adjournment, arouse interest and afford an opportunity to present additional information to the audience. Lantern slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, and actual demonstrations of such simple techniques as developing latent fingerprints or testing for blood stains assist the speaker in his presentation and focus attention on the subject at hand.

Commercial Radio Broadcasts. The radio and television present further opportunities for public reporting through 5-minute dialogues broadcast daily over a commercial radio station. Interest is aroused by having questions asked by a radio reporter or woman clerk in the guise of an interested citizen. To facilitate such radio broadcasts, direct lines are sometimes installed between the radio studio and police headquarters.

SPECIAL DEPARTMENT CONTACTS WITH THE PUBLIC

An excellent means for establishing an agreeable public relationship for a police department with wisely selected and suitably trained personnel is to devise methods for enabling the public to become personally acquainted with the men. Citizens are interested in the police department and welcome an opportunity to visit headquarters to see police demonstrations, to learn something about police procedures, and to participate vicariously in police operations. When police officers are men of fine character and personality, the experience of the public in meeting them and in participating with them in the occasion serves to strengthen the relationship between the citizen and the officer.

Since the purpose of any special contact with the public is to impress them favorably, qualified officers should be chosen for the occasion and

the police should appear at their best. They should prepare for the affair as for a general inspection, with headquarters tidy and clean, uniforms immaculate, and equipment in perfect order.

Tours of Inspection. A tour of inspection of headquarters offers an excellent means for personal contact and provides an opportunity to show the public undesirable conditions for the correction of which funds are not available. Police departments are still found housed in the basement of the city hall, unless the top floor is more inconvenient and less desirable, and many municipal jails continue to be a disgrace. Such conditions frequently exist merely because citizens are unaware of them. A tour of inspection brings the unsatisfactory condition to light.

Important groups should receive the first invitations for tours of inspection. It is usually well to start with the leading luncheon clubs and take the entire list in the order of their importance. Church and industrial groups and professional clubs may follow. When it becomes known that groups have been taken on tours of inspection through police headquarters, many others will wish to do the same; from the police viewpoint this is desirable, and the privilege of inspection should not be denied any group sufficiently interested to make the request. Less extensive tours may be instituted for smaller and less important ones. When a club is invited for a tour of inspection, its president or secretary should send its members invitations worded to stimulate the interest of the group.

Since most of the groups will consist of businessmen, an evening hour is the most desirable time for the tour. Some will arrive considerably before the specified time, and displays, for the most part self-explanatory but with officers in attendance when necessary, will serve the double purpose of informing the public and maintaining their interest during this waiting period. The visitors should also register their names and addresses during this time, thus providing the police with a mailing list of persons interested in department problems. The group should be brought together in one room for a welcome by the chief and a short explanation of the purpose of the tour and of the procedure to be followed.

Detailed plans should be made for the tour. The number will be too large to take through in a single group, and therefore, in order that the officers assigned may give personal attention to the members, the guests should be divided into small groups of not more than 15 each. By careful planning to avoid conflict and congestion, it is possible to take through simultaneously four to eight groups, according to the size of the building, each starting and ending at different points but covering the same ground.

Since the visitors will judge the department by their guides, officers selected for this purpose should be outstanding in physical appearance

and competent public speakers, with sufficiently strong voices to command the attention of their audiences, despite the unavoidable confusion and distraction. They should use good English and guard against inadvertent profanity, although the use of criminal jargon provides desirable local color.

Department facilities of particular public interest are the complaint desk, radio dispatcher, booking room, show-up of prisoners, police laboratory, police court, and the vice-division quarters with narcotic and gambling equipment displays. Jail facilities, the visiting rooms, the matron's quarters, the blankets furnished to prisoners, and the eating accommodations, with a sample meal on display, also prove of interest.

The tour should not last so long as to tire the visitors. A complete inspection of a large headquarters will require an hour or more, and in smaller ones the time may be filled in with a police demonstration. The beginning or end of a tour offers an opportunity for visitors to have their fingerprints taken for the noncriminal file. Personal-property description cards and department publications and other literature may also be distributed at this time. The following day the police may send a letter to each visitor expressing appreciation of his interest in the department and requesting suggestions for improvement of police service.

Rides in Patrol Cars. Another method of creating citizen interest is to invite influential men of the community to ride in police cars and observe the operation of a police officer on duty so that they may know how the officers patrol their beats and dispose of the unusual situations with which they are so frequently confronted. In this way the citizens will learn something of modern police procedures and also make personal contact with the officer driving the car. In the ordinary course of events, such rides should include some type of emergency run, even though it is necessary to simulate the emergency. When suitable tactics are employed, the citizen will be favorably impressed with the speed and thoroughness with which the point of attack is covered.

A ride in the special investigator's car impresses the citizen with the preparedness of the department and with the skill and ability of the officers assigned to investigate crimes and accidents. The operation of the police at the scene of an accident makes an excellent demonstration. When the citizen is brought to the location in a police car, he can observe the operation from the start. Judges and prosecutors in courts dealing with traffic cases are favorably influenced by such demonstrations. They then accord greater weight to the testimony offered and are more favorable to the presentation of photographs and other semiscientific evidence.

Special Demonstrations. If a tour of inspection does not permit sufficient time for a demonstration, a special visit to police headquarters

may be arranged for this purpose. Demonstrations may be given of police methods in handling prisoners, showing jujitsu methods for handling rough prisoners and for disarming criminals about to shoot, stab, or club an officer. Methods of searching prisoners may likewise be shown, thus illustrating the manner in which criminals sometimes conceal weapons and tools useful in breaking jail. Target practice on the police range also provides an excellent demonstration, especially when the men have been trained in trick shooting.¹

Police dispatching may also be shown in detail, with maps arranged to show the beat covered by each car and the availability of the cars for service. An explanation should be made of the tactics used in covering important points of attack.

The police laboratory offers much of interest to the public, especially if confiscated guns and other paraphernalia are on display. Laboratory equipment in operation invariably impresses the observer. The use of the comparison microscope and ultraviolet light, the method of identification of articles by tool marks, and the use of *moulage* and plaster-of-Paris casts are all interesting demonstrations. A polygraph or lie-detector demonstration, with one of the visitors as the subject in a simple age, number, or card deception test, proves equally interesting. A demonstration of fingerprinting may be planned to include the taking of the prints, the development of latent prints on various materials, and an explanation of the classification and filing of fingerprints.

Displays and Exhibits. Displays and exhibits are also effective means of informing and interesting the public. Their subject and nature and the location where they may be used advantageously are limited only by the ingenuity of the officer in charge. For the interest of persons waiting in the police building, as well as of officers, there should be space for charts relating to the crime and accident situation. Retail stores will frequently donate a shop window for a police display because of the large number of people it attracts. Theaters are also usually eager for displays in their lobbies.

Filmstrips and motion pictures of many police operations may be used effectively in displays, with an officer in attendance to explain the scenes and operations. The National Safety Council and some insurance companies have available for display without charge filmstrips and motion pictures suitable for these purposes. Equipment displays also may be arranged in an impressive manner. While such displays would consist principally of photographs and diagrams, some actual equipment may

¹ These are also suitable demonstrations to be presented before clubs and other groups. Small portable bullet catchers enable shooting exhibitions with .22 caliber pistols.

also be used. For example, a large diagram may illustrate the police communications system and its operation, supplemented by photographs of switchboards, dispatcher's office and equipment, call boxes, and recall lights, and through telephone company cooperation, it is possible to place some actual equipment on display. Laboratory equipment may be shown by photograph and also by actual samples of polygraph records, *moulage* casts, and of physical evidence that featured in some disposed-of case. Contraband narcotics with samples or photographs of the plants from which they are obtained, opium-smoking paraphernalia, confiscated weapons, and materials used in forgery and counterfeiting also make interesting display subjects.

THE POLICE AND THE PRESS

The press has greater freedom and exerts a more profound influence in molding public opinion in America than in any other country of the world. Although in theory it has a responsibility commensurate with the power it wields, the press does not always recognize its obligation to the public, and its influence is sometimes prostituted to selfish political ends that run contrary to the public good. Leaders in the newspaper world recognize the need for a code of journalistic ethics, but it has not yet emerged.

Occasionally the police are victims of unfair, and sometimes malicious, press attacks, and the public good then suffers. The police are in a vulnerable position in relation to the press; since the police deal with human beings, it is easy for the press to criticize almost every police act and to obtain sympathetic support from citizens who have been subjected to some police control.

The police administrator should attempt to establish relationships with the press that will lessen the likelihood of unfair criticisms. He can do this best by adopting a policy of complete fairness in all his relationships with the newspapers and their representatives. He should not attempt to conceal department weaknesses or the derelictions of individual policemen; he should, in return, receive from the press a fair presentation of the facts and a critical analysis of the causes. The press should not condemn the department or the police generally for the acts of individual policemen; rather, they should point out the weakness in the system which permitted unqualified persons to become members of the department and develop a public demand for improved procedures of recruitment and training that would lessen the possibility of such errors in the future.

The police should welcome honest criticism based on the true facts when that criticism is constructively designed to improve police service. On the other hand, the press should not criticize without having all the facts, lest they be unfair, and their criticism should not be an attack on personalities but a constructive attempt to improve procedures and policies.

Newspaper Assistance. Because of its influence on public opinion, the press with a genuine interest in the public good can assist the police in improving the quality of their service by pointing out the need for improved personnel practices, for better equipment, and for adequate man power. Amicable relations with the press also afford many other advantages to the police. Newspaper facilities can then be used for reporting department activities to the public, informing them on department programs and procedures, enlisting their assistance in crime and traffic-control problems, instructing them on the nature and purpose of new regulations, and educating them in procedures designed to minimize opportunities for criminal acts and accidents.

Most newspapers are willing to devote all the space requested to police subjects because these matters are of human interest and sometimes provide material for some form of newspaper campaign. The editorial staff, however, may have its own ideas as to what constitutes news and as to what material is suitable for publication; generally, however, aid may be obtained by frank discussions of police problems and proposed solutions that deserve their assistance. In those infrequent instances where the editorial staff is unsympathetic, a discussion with the publisher may bring the desired results. When the newspaper is unfriendly to the administration, it may be necessary to enlist the assistance of interested local groups, especially retail merchants who do considerable advertising. The police, however, are usually able to establish friendly relations with the press and to work out their problems without assistance from the outside.

Police Press Policy. Press representatives must rely on police sources for their news. A small number of news sources within the department lessens interference with officers at work, simplifies control and coordination, and sometimes saves an officer embarrassment when information is requested that he is not certain should be released. Attempts to restrict the sources arbitrarily invariably fail, sometimes disastrously for the police chief. However, press representatives in search of news unconsciously reduce the number of their contacts with members of the force when the police establish acceptable procedures that facilitate the collection of news. The police chief, therefore, should establish a policy in reference to the accessibility to the press of the daily bulletin and some

other police records; also he should develop procedures and give instructions to operating personnel that will enable reporters to gather their news facts rapidly, accurately, completely, and promptly following the receipt of the information by the police.

Competitor papers are jealous of their news rights and resent any evidence of news being withheld from release until after their deadline. The only course for the chief under any circumstances, whether dealing with a friendly or an unfriendly press, is to arrange for the release to be made as the cases are reported. He should also watch closely for any evidence of newspaper favoritism on the part of members of his force.

The police chief should adhere strictly to a policy of not withholding from the press any information (not relating to national security or vice) except: (1) the names of juvenile offenders and victims, except in murder cases, (2) the names of female victims in sex crimes when the victim is not of ill-repute or guilty of conduct that provoked the attack, and (3) facts the public knowledge of which might interfere with crime investigations or the apprehension or interrogation of suspects.

In conference with the city editor of each paper, the police chief should attempt to reach agreement that there would be no publicity given to the information mentioned above. City editors almost invariably will agree to withhold ordinarily the names of juveniles and of female victims in sex crimes while printing an account of the incident. When such agreement is reached, no further attention needs to be given to cases in the first two categories; they will then be handled in the same way as all other cases.

The editors also usually agree in principle that the remaining item should have no publicity but they frequently argue that they, not the police, must judge whether public knowledge of the facts would interfere with police operations. This attitude, of course, makes impossible a satisfactory agreement. When the decision is to be made independently by each city editor on the basis of his own judgment, no city editor will risk being scooped by a competitor; in consequence the item receives publicity unless the chief telephones each editor and gets agreement from all, based largely on the fact that it is unanimous, that there will be no publicity. Lack of time makes such a plan not feasible; also, when in spite of the unanimous agreement, one editor inadvertently or willfully publishes the story, the police chief is placed in an embarrassing position with the others.

News Release Procedure. A department news release procedure, based on the above policy, should be established covering the following points:

- (1) All department records, except those marked "No Publicity" and

those relating to national security and vice, should be open to inspection by newspapermen at all times. (2) Cases containing the previously mentioned three categories of information that justifies no publicity should be stamped "No Publicity," and officers having information relating to them should be informed of the action. These officers should then be required to refer press inquiries on these cases to their commanding officer. When there is press agreement ordinarily not to publish the names of juveniles and of female victims in sex crimes, such cases do not need to be marked "No Publicity." (3) "No publicity" cases should be delivered to the chief in small departments and to a designated commanding officer on each shift in larger departments. Press inquiries should be referred to this officer. (4) The above-indicated officer should gather the press representatives and discuss with them the case on which the department desires information to be withheld from publication, stating the position of the department and seeking agreement from the reporters. When the relationships are suitable, the press representative who is unable or unwilling to refrain from publication will so notify the police who may then take the matter up with the city editor. If the editor refuses to conform to police wishes, the story will be published. The police chief must then decide whether, on the next occasion, he will withhold the information completely or adhere to the procedure described above. Whenever possible he should follow the latter course.

The police chief should place sharp restrictions on the use of the "no publicity" prerogative and fix responsibility for such decisions on commanding officers having exceptionally sound judgment. He should, in addition, personally review each case so designated to assure himself that the department is not withholding information that should properly be given to the press. All policies and procedures designed to aid the press should be explained to all members of the force so that they may assist in carrying out the police purpose.

The Police Reporter. Police reporters usually present no problem in the development of a desirable relationship with the press. Since their chief interest is to obtain news, procedures should be established to facilitate their work and to assure an ample supply of material for their use.

The wise police chief will establish a policy authorizing division heads to release to the press items regarding the general or over-all activities of their units, in contrast to items relating to specific cases which should be released by operating personnel as the incidents come to police attention. He will also breathe life into the policy by urging his immediate subordinates to give careful attention to their press relations and to provide useful material to the papers. Thus full advantage is taken

of press facilities in educating and informing the public, and the relationship between the police and the press is more firmly cemented.

The records division should supply the heads of each division with material so that they may always have copy for the reporters. One story each day is better than three stories every third day. News reporters are interested in the unusual; for them any superlative makes a story, and they search each day for some feature which establishes that day as unique. In the history of the police department there is not a day that is not significant in some respect: the most arrests, the end of a period of no robberies, the smallest property loss, the greatest percentage of arrests of car thieves, the smallest number of cars stolen, the longest period without a fatal accident or without a pedestrian fatality, and so on.

Special Press Activities. A cooperative press may assist the police in a number of special activities. Some publish, as a boxed feature, special items furnished by the police. One such series, called "Police Court Alibis," recited an amusing excuse presented in police court each day. Similar columns or features have been run under such descriptive titles as "Traffic Tips" and "Safety Sayings." Crime and accident facts may likewise be presented to include the number of personal-injury and fatal automobile accidents, the number and percentage of clearances by arrest of such crimes as robbery, burglary, and car theft, with figures for a comparable previous period included.

Chapter 24

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

The active interest and participation of individual citizens and groups is so vital to the success of most police programs that the police should deliberately seek to arouse, promote, and maintain an active public concern in their affairs. The police should not resent such attention, nor should they regard as happy the situation where the public takes no interest in their work and evinces no desire to participate in the solution of their problems. Such indifference should not be construed as a public satisfied with the work of the department, but rather as a public that may, under slight provocation, violently object to police procedures merely because they are not familiar with them.

PURPOSE AND GENERAL CHARACTER

The police should promote community organizations to assist in the accomplishment of their objectives in three fields, *viz.*, traffic control, organized crime, and delinquency prevention. The organizations will be called safety councils, crime commissions, and community councils for delinquency prevention respectively. They will assist in coordinating community effort, in promoting public support, and in combating organized crime.

Need for Coordination. Problems and their solutions in the three fields mentioned above frequently entail programs of activity that extend beyond the jurisdiction of the police; the coordinated activity of several agencies is then required. For example, the support of the prosecutor and courts is vital to the success of most police programs, especially in the fields of organized crime and traffic control, because these agencies are in a strategic position to nullify police efforts. Likewise, a great number of social-welfare and other agencies are concerned with crime prevention, and engineering and educational aspects of traffic control necessitate the combined efforts of engineers, planners, newspapers, and other agencies.

The coordination of the public and semipublic agencies which must participate in the solution of community problems in which the police have a primary responsibility is difficult for the police alone to achieve

because of the independent and unrelated character of nearly all the participating agencies. The heads of these agencies, however, are usually amenable to the influence of community organizations. Conferences with agency representatives promote coordination by clarifying relationships, defining responsibilities, and discussing the aims and methods of each.

Need for Public Support. The execution of plans in these three spheres of activity also necessitates the active support and participation of the public. The police, under a government for and by the people, are public servants appointed to protect life and property in a manner approved by the people. Sometimes the police are out of step with the people and attempt to impose on them unpopular programs of control. Such undertakings are doomed to failure, and continued efforts of a police administrator to regulate the conduct of people against the will of the majority usually result in his removal from office.

Unpopular programs intended to protect the lives and property of the people are either wrong or right. When they are wrong, the police need reeducation; when they are right, the public are in need of education. The public usually approve a sound program when they recognize the purpose and understand the need for it. Misinformation makes more difficult the accomplishment of police tasks in these three fields; it must be corrected if public support is to be assured.

The solution of most police problems involves influencing mass attitudes which can only be molded, directed, and controlled by the force of public opinion. The problems are complex, with varied factors, and nearly all are community-wide in scope. Most of them result from the attitudes and actions of a large part of the population; therefore their solution necessitates the help of the citizens in the community. Without the pressure of public opinion, successful enforcement of traffic, vice, and some other regulations is difficult, if not impossible. Efforts to induce compliance by force, without first favorably molding public opinion, consistently result in failure. Community organizations are essential to mold favorable public sentiment.

Owing to limited budgets and personnel, the police, social workers, engineers, and other officials alone cannot successfully carry on programs as widespread and extensive as is necessary to achieve the solution of many of the community problems in which the police have a primary responsibility. Public support, therefore, must be enlisted.

Community-wide interest and participation assure public support. People often resent having opinions forced upon them, whereas if they participate in the development and application of a community program, they become interested in its success. The greater the number who are

interested and actively engaged in the study and solution of community problems, therefore, the more satisfactory are the results.

An organized, informed, and alert community will provide moral backing, financial support, and some special skills, and will promote public understanding of police problems and of the actions proposed for their solution.

Need for Assistance in Combating Organized Crime. The suppression and elimination of organized crime interferes with the direct and indirect money profits of persons who derive rental from, or perform services for, those engaged in these unlawful activities. Some businessmen also feel, without justification, that certain unlawful activities stimulate legitimate trade by attracting persons to the community who otherwise would not come.

Huge profits in gambling, prostitution, narcotics, and liquor control make these the fields of organized crime; in them racketeers attempt to establish virtual monopolies by political corruption and terrorism. Political corruption is an inevitable consequence of the continued operation of unlawful activities that provide unusually large profits, because corruption is necessary to provide conditions favorable to continued operation, and the huge profits make the corruption possible.

Springing from these activities are the evils of the bail-bond broker; he not only obtains the release of his client but through political influence frequently succeeds in fixing the case by arranging for a dismissal of the charge or the substitution of a less severe charge or a lighter than ordinary penalty. Political control assures profits also from otherwise legitimate activities.

Selfish interests enjoying the profits and advantages mentioned above oppose action that may lessen their income or their political control. They therefore exert pressure to influence the enactment of laws and regulations and the granting of special privileges. They likewise spend large sums to influence public opinion in their favor, frequently by deliberate misrepresentation of facts.

The police alone are powerless in many communities to resist the tremendous forces arrayed against them in the field of organized crime. It is imperative in large cities that the community be organized to assist the law-enforcement officials; only an aroused public can assure the removal of such evil forces from the community.

Objectives of Community Organization. Community organizations, therefore, should be created to accomplish the following objectives:

1. Coordinate participating public and semipublic agencies in programs that necessitate the action of several.

2. Protect the community, legislative bodies, courts, prosecutors, police, and other officials from the influence of groups with selfish interests that are contrary to public interest.

3. Influence officials to act in conformity with public welfare by supporting the adoption of desirable programs, regulations, and procedures, and by opposing the adoption of undesirable ones.

4. Obtain public support of programs designed in the public interest in order that facilities essential to their accomplishment, in the form of space, equipment, and personnel, may be made available.

5. Popularize these programs so that the people will favor their accomplishment and the enforcement of incidental regulations; obtain public cooperation in the form of compliance with regulations and an active intolerance of their violation.

Activities of Community Organizations. Each community organization, serving as a clearinghouse for information relating to activities in its field, should accomplish these objectives by:

Planning. Analysis of the problem is a first step in planning; inventory of facilities is a second. Surveys must be made to reveal present conditions and their causes in order that remedial action may be planned.

Promotion and Interpretation. If a plan or program is to receive support from the public, from budget makers, and from participating agencies, a need must be shown and the plan must be interpreted so that its purpose and method are understood and its effectiveness and value appreciated.

Advisory and Policy-making Functions. The community organization serves participating agencies in an advisory capacity in the formulation of policy and in the development of suitable working relationships with other agencies.

Direction and Coordination. The community organization should see that the interagency relationships and operating procedures are carried through in practice. Control must be exercised by the process of indoctrination, however, rather than by the imposition of its will on participating agencies.

Lay Character of Community Organizations. A vital characteristic of community organizations to which they owe their success is the inclusion of laymen and representatives of civic clubs as well as representatives of participating agencies. These people inject into the solution of the problems the interest and enthusiasm of parents, home owners, and business and professional men; these are the people who have the greatest concern in the character and welfare of the community.

Lay participation necessitates decentralization, in the form of neighborhood safety councils and community councils for crime prevention, in

cities that are no longer effective community units but, instead, are municipalities of neighborhoods or integral social communities, each distinct from the others. This necessity does not exist so strongly in crime commissions, although their attention may be directed at neighborhood problems by the appointment of committees. Racial, economic, occupational, religious, and social characteristics; topography, area, and population are all elements that influence the desirability of separated neighborhoods. Cities of 250,000 population invariably are composed of separated neighborhood communities that deserve organization of neighborhood councils. The need is also frequently apparent in smaller cities.

Two Types of Community Organizations. The community organization in each of the three fields under discussion may be one of two types. It may be organized as a committee of a larger, already existent parent organization, such as the chamber of commerce or some other community-wide organization, or it may be organized as a separate entity, completely dissociated from any other.

Creation as a committee of a larger organization simplifies promotion and assures support from the parent body. The services of the parent organization's secretarial staff and of one to serve as its executive secretary are usually provided. Office space, clerical assistance, and other facilities are thus made immediately available. In addition, a budget allowance is usually provided, and moral support is received from the parent group.

The parent organization is automatically identified with the committee and its projects, an important consideration of value in direct proportion to the standing of the parent body in the community. Committee activities will be hampered by inherited misunderstandings when the organization has a poor reputation and strong public opposition and when community support is divided by the existence of other groups antagonistic to it.

There is also a danger of the influence of vested interests in a parent organization, which, if it results in restricted action, may prove disastrous. The committee of a large organization is not permitted to take action on controversial matters without the approval of the board of directors. Also, its efforts to raise money for its programs may interfere with the subscription activities of the parent organization.

Hence, while the determination of the type of organization must be contingent upon the situation existing in the individual community, the independent organization is more desirable and should be undertaken if sufficient community interest can be aroused to furnish the necessary support.

A large membership in the independent organization promotes public interest and participation and financial support. The president should select members on the basis of their official positions and interests to serve as a board of directors. The board will have the same duties as the previously mentioned committee of a parent organization. All interested members should be welcomed at board meetings. An annual meeting should be held of the organization as a whole.

Dual Organizations in the Same Field Are Undesirable. In some cities a second community organization composed of the heads of participating agencies has been created to coordinate the efforts of official agencies, especially in the field of traffic control. This dual organization scheme, however, has not proved satisfactory in most instances where it has been adopted; lines of demarcation of the responsibilities of the two groups are not easily defined, each is jealous of the other, and their continued operation usually retards, rather than stimulates, progress. The preferred method, and one which is consistent with the already mentioned purpose of the community organization to serve as a coordinating agency, is to have the heads of the participating agencies, or their representatives, serve as members of the community organization. Their membership, in view of their official positions, is important to the success of the undertaking and further serves to accomplish the purposes of the second organization mentioned above.

Leadership. Strong leadership is required to organize a community for crime prevention and for the control of organized crime and traffic safety. The needed leadership is usually, but not invariably, found in the agencies whose primary purpose relates most directly to these activities.

Since many community agencies have at least an implied responsibility in crime prevention, any one of several may assume the leadership and provide the initiative, energy, and persistence to create and sustain a community crime-prevention program. The pattern of the program is strongly influenced by the identity of the agency that assumes this leadership. In some communities the police furnish the leadership; in others, the probation officers or the schools.

Leadership in the creation and operation of crime commissions frequently comes from outside the official agencies that have important responsibilities in this field. The police usually provide leadership for the creation of safety councils and should be active in the promotion of organizations in the other two fields as well. They should initiate the projects, direct their growth, and contribute to their development.

Promotion. When a community organization is to be a committee of an already existing community-wide organization, its formation should be discussed with the executive secretary of that association. If the plan

meets with approval, one or two members should be suggested to take an active part in its development, selected on the basis of their interest in the field of activity. The project should then be proposed to the board of directors; if they approve, they should appoint a committee. The appointment of a committee chairman is usually the duty of the president, but he should consider the advice of the police in the selection.

On the other hand, when it is considered expedient to create an independent organization, sponsorship by some established group, such as the chamber of commerce, a merchants organization, a civic club, or a patriotic organization, should be solicited. A campaign should be planned, publicity arranged, the support of interested persons solicited, an interesting inspirational program developed, and an organizational meeting held.

Expert advice will be needed in many phases of the organization and operation of the newly formed group to ensure its success. Promotion of community programs of this character requires technical ability. While the program, once under way, can and should be administered by local citizens, expert aid should not be scorned at the outset. Through it the community may profit from the experiences of other cities. The National Safety Council maintains a permanent field consultant staff prepared to assist communities in their organization and programs. The Youth Authority in California assists communities in that state in the development of crime-prevention programs. The community which avails itself of such experienced services gives its program further impetus at the start and avoids many commonly made mistakes.

Finance. A plan for financing must be prepared in advance of the organizational meeting, and the solicitation of subscriptions should be started immediately. Expert advice should be obtained in finance matters as well as in organization.

Community organizations are financed by popular subscriptions. Two sources are available: numerous small contributions from individual citizens and a smaller number of large donations from wealthy citizens and business organizations. Both sources should be relied upon. Numerous small contributions have the merit of enlisting the support and interest of many persons, but they alone have not proved adequate. The task of soliciting the funds from such sources is a heavy one, and the uncertainty of the revenue hampers effective operation. Successful stable organization depends on a few sizable contributions that can be relied upon year after year. Small subscriptions should not be relied upon as the sole, or even major, source of revenue; they should not be ignored, however, because they enlist wide interest through participation.

Budgetary needs are greatest in the operation of a safety council; a crime commission does not ordinarily require so large a budget. The nature of the work of a crime commission necessitates greater caution in the acceptance of financial support lest such assistance be provided by persons who may wish to influence the organization against action that may prove detrimental to their special interest.

Expenses incident to the operation of a community council are not great and may be met by the participating agencies. The neighborhood councils and a central agency are usually able to raise funds to meet special needs; only in large communities may there be need for an operating budget.

Director or Executive Secretary. A full-time director or secretary is desirable. Secretarial services may be provided a community council by one of the participating agencies, such as the police, the probation office, or the schools; in large communities one person may be assigned to devote full time to this work. Crime commissions and safety councils should, if possible, employ a full-time manager.

The manager or director should be young, active, and personable, with a good educational background and the qualities of an executive. While not essential it is desirable that he be well acquainted in the community and experienced in the activity of the organization.

Chairman or President. The civilian head who serves as chairman when the organization is a committee of a larger group, or the president when it is independent, should have a keen interest in the activity of the organization, be it organized crime, traffic safety, or crime prevention. Important also is his persistence, drive, and ability to organize and direct the energy of the members and to stimulate their enthusiasm in meetings and sustain their active participation in the projects of the organization. Heads of organizations who lack qualities of leadership and whose selection is based only on personal interest in the activity sometimes attempt to do all the work of the organization themselves; the other members then lose enthusiasm through inactivity. Continued interest is assured by giving every member a job. The head of the organization must have the moral courage, persistency, and force to see that each job is done promptly and effectively. When he has a strong personality, he is more likely to attract full attendance at meetings and to maintain enthusiasm that otherwise might lag.

Meetings. The committee or board of directors should establish regular meeting days of sufficient frequency to sustain interest from one conference to the next. Luncheons are more suitable than evening meetings. The meeting should be held at least every other week and once each week if the volume of work justifies it. There is usually ample work

to be done; leadership is needed to plan a suitable agenda. Enthusiasm and morale are damaged by irregular, infrequent, and postponed meetings.

Attendance should be stimulated by mailed notices and by telephone calls the morning of the meeting. An attendance record should be kept by the secretary in order that indifferent members may be replaced by more active ones. A copy of the agenda should accompany the notice of the meeting so that members may familiarize themselves with items scheduled for discussion.

Committees. Standing committees should be appointed to study specific problems and to develop and recommend plans for their solution. They should supervise in a general way the carrying out of the plans and make progress reports to the committee as a whole or to the board of directors. The committee's attention to specific subjects may be by reference from the organization as a whole or on committee initiative. The extent to which committees will conduct investigations, make studies, propose remedial measures, and participate in carrying out approved plans will depend upon the nature of the problem and the interest and activity of official agencies.

It may be necessary to appoint special committees to deal with specific questions, although standing committees, when suitably organized, should be competent to handle most problems. Unless they are given some responsibility for the execution of their recommended plan or its supervision, special committees should be discharged after the completion of their study and the acceptance of their report.

Appointments to committees should be on the basis of interest and special knowledge concerning the problems involved. A police representative should be included whenever the police point of view is needed, which it usually is.

Action by the community organization before all facts are considered is frequently unwise and results in loss of prestige. In order that the group may establish a reputation for conservative judgment, matters coming before it should be investigated by a suitable committee before being acted upon; and the committee, after analyzing the problem and developing a solution, should submit a report for approval before placing its plan in operation.

Committees also serve as watchdogs over the continuing operation of various phases of community programs. It is difficult for the organization as a whole to keep close tab on all phases of the community program; this important job may be performed by committees, each focusing its attention principally on a single phase of the program.

Publicity. Publicity to the recommendations of the group with the facts presented in their most favorable light serves as a trial balloon.

When the resulting public comment is favorable, the agencies concerned with the final execution of the plan are more favorably inclined toward its acceptance. Unfavorable public reaction, on the other hand, indicates either that the recommendations are not sound or that the public needs further education before pressing for the adoption of the plan.

Other Organizations. The interest and participation of the general public should be stimulated beyond the limits of the community organizations heretofore discussed. The active interest of other organizations should be aroused, directed, and maintained. Business and luncheon clubs, patriotic and fraternal organizations, women's clubs, parent-teachers associations, and church groups all have the community welfare at heart and only need to have specific tasks given to them and their work directed to engage actively in community programs. These groups have the power to influence public opinion and to develop a public attitude favorable to the solution of community problems. The stimulation of a directing hand is needed to bring these latent powers to life. The safety council, the crime commission, and the community council can promote their projects in this manner.

It is best to interest these associations in one phase of a community program rather than to place the responsibility for the complete program on one organization. One member should be selected to promote the activity by preparing a plan for presentation to the president and board of directors of his club. If the suggestion is looked upon with favor, a committee will be appointed to make plans for its accomplishment. A committee meeting should be called, the plan and ways and means of its execution discussed, the matter of finance settled, and the task of winning the support and active participation of the entire club membership studied. In order to arouse and maintain interest, the committee should make frequent progress reports to the club as a whole.

THE SAFETY COUNCIL

Continuing activities justify the creation in the safety council of standing committees on enforcement, engineering, public education, and child education. Representatives from agencies having responsibilities in each of these fields should be appointed to these committees. The enforcement committee should include representatives of the police department, the prosecutors, and the courts, but the chairman should not be affiliated with any one of them. Engineer members of the safety council should be appointed to the engineering committee in addition to representatives from the police and other departments concerned with engineering prob-

lems. The educational committees should include representatives of the press, motion pictures, radio, schools, and the police department.

The council may stimulate other organizations to undertake projects which promote some aspect of community safety. The erection of signs, the distribution of posters, the maintenance of accident gauges at central points, visible to many persons, and the operation of a speakers' bureau to furnish speakers and radio and television programs designed to promote safety are examples.

The schoolboy patrol is another example of a project that may be fostered by a civic club. In some communities the operation of a schoolboy patrol has met resistance from school authorities and parents who have not understood its real value, and the police sometimes need assistance in overcoming this opposition. Clubs also assist in obtaining equipment needed for the operation of school patrols by direct appropriation from their own funds in some instances and by influencing the board of education and the city administration to provide such appropriations in others. Civic clubs in some communities have arranged for summer camps for school patrol boys; in others they have stimulated interest among the boys by providing entertainment for them during the school year by Saturday hikes, wiener roasts, special motion pictures, and attendance at football games and other athletic events.

Neighborhood Organization for Traffic Safety. The traffic-safety program should permeate the entire community, and this is difficult in large cities where neighborhoods exist unconscious of safety activities in the larger community. The police department of one large city meets this problem by assigning a safety officer to each precinct (police district) to organize a safety council in each. Each precinct is divided into four districts, and each district into small neighborhood sections of about 16 blocks each.

The president of the businessmen's association in each district is the chairman of a committee composed of section supervisors. The section supervisors are residents who serve as neighborhood civilian safety officers. Their duties are to study and report on high-accident locations; to inform other residents on safety matters and to arouse in them an intolerance toward reckless driving; to make, with the assistance of other residents, a canvass of the area for traffic hazards. Section supervisors also survey play facilities in the neighborhood and, in the absence of vacant property, interest the neighborhood residents in the purchase or rental of property by the city for play space. They also arouse parents against the practice of permitting children to play in the street and arrange for play supervision by parents and other citizens.

Bi-weekly meetings of the central precinct committee, composed of the four district chairmen, representatives of the juvenile court, the rec-

reaction department, and the police precinct commander, permit discussion of matters relating to precinct welfare, with particular attention to traffic safety. The value of neighborhood organizations of this character is not limited to safety, however; they play an important part in crime prevention also. Further, they break down the barriers which exist between next-door neighbors in large cities and thereby produce a more agreeable relationship and greater cooperation in all fields of community welfare, which after all is a sound base for good citizenship.

THE CRIME COMMISSION

The crime commission should analyze the local crime situation and the administration of criminal justice. The adequacy and suitability of procedures used by the police, the courts, and the prosecutors should be ascertained by searching for evidences of deficiencies indicated by a high crime rate; a low rate of clearance by arrest and recovery of stolen property; a small percentage of convictions; abuse of bail privileges and continuances; unreasonable elapsed time in the disposition of criminal cases; unjustified reduction of charges; disproportionate numbers of pleas of guilt to minor charges by persons originally held for more serious offenses; perversion of probation; and misuse of licensing power by failure to deny licenses and to revoke them as required by law.

The crime commission should work with the agencies concerned and attempt to overcome weaknesses in the administration of criminal justice. In cooperation with the interested agencies it should also propose legislative changes which may be necessary to eliminate abuses and other weaknesses that cannot otherwise be corrected.

The crime commission should keep the public informed on its findings and their significance, on the activities of persons attempting to establish monopolies in unlawful activities by corruption and terrorism, and on the true relationship between organized crime and vice.

Organization. The advantages of community-wide membership in the crime commission should not be discounted. Public interest is thus stimulated and sustained, and the dissemination of information relating to problems in the field of organized crime is thereby facilitated. A smaller group is needed to direct the operations of the commission, however, and a governing board should be created for this purpose. The opportunity for selfish influences to corrupt the commission or divert its attention from its principal objective is lessened when the board is not selected by the membership. A degree of protection is afforded by the selection of the board in the following manner: two representatives from each national civic club having local chapters, appointed by the club presidents for two-year terms expiring on alternate years; two

faculty members from each local university or college appointed for indefinite terms by their presidents; and two local members of the American Bar Association, to be appointed by the state vice-president of the American Bar. It may also be found desirable to include representatives from other groups, such as the chamber of commerce, retail merchants associations, women's clubs, and professional groups.

The heads of each law-enforcement agency should be honorary members, and their attendance at all meetings should be urged. These include judges, prosecutors, the sheriff, chief of police, and the chief probation officer.

THE COMMUNITY COUNCIL FOR DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

The activities and accomplishments of community councils for the prevention of delinquency may be enumerated as follows:¹

1. Sociological surveys and studies are made of (a) individual children, groups of children, and areas needing attention (delinquency problems known to the police, probation officers, and school officials); (b) community assets favorable to the development of children and young persons and useful in the treatment of delinquency problems; and (c) community liabilities in the form of environmental conditions having a destructive influence on the character of youth.
2. Special services needed by individuals to overcome behavior problems, with special attention to persons under twenty-five years of age, are provided by the agency best equipped to meet the need.
3. New services in delinquency prevention are provided and the delinquency-prevention aspects of the programs of agencies not otherwise participating are promoted. Present programs are enlarged or changed in order to render services to groups or areas hitherto overlooked. The use of existing facilities is increased; community social-welfare facilities, especially in recreation, are enlarged; membership in children's group activities is stimulated, and new group activities for children are created.
4. Agency workers in every field are made delinquency-prevention conscious. Cooperation among workers from many departments and agencies is stimulated. The attitude of officials, schoolteachers, social workers, character-building executives, and civic leaders toward children with behavior problems is improved. Standards are raised in all services.
5. The number of petitions filed in juvenile court is decreased by mutual understanding and confidence between the juvenile court and other

agencies. The court is then used only as a last resort after the community and its agencies have failed.

6. The delinquency-prevention program is interpreted to the community. Citizens are educated to feel a new sense of responsibility for making their community more desirable for their children and for assisting in the solution of problems that before have been left entirely to the police. The environment is improved through community action by strengthening constructive influences and eliminating destructive ones.

Organization of Community Council. A rigid pattern of organization successful in one community cannot be imposed upon every other jurisdiction with invariable success, but usually must be modified to fill the unique needs of each. Factors likely to influence the organization of a community council include the adequacy of social-welfare agencies in staff, facilities, and extent of activities; their relative interest and active, conscious participation in delinquency prevention; the pattern of civic organization; and the quality of leadership in delinquency prevention and where it is found.

Community councils for delinquency prevention may, therefore, be organized in a variety of forms. The councils in Los Angeles County, created in 1932,² are filling a need that assures their continued existence, they have had a wider experience than those found elsewhere and they have served as a guide to other communities. The central committee is composed of representatives (preferably the heads) of the law-enforcement agencies (the police, sheriff, probation office, and juvenile court), the schools, the social-welfare agencies, the character-building agencies, the recreation department, the civic clubs, and any other body having a special interest in delinquency prevention. The chairman is elected from this group to serve a 1-year term. The central committee considers jurisdiction-wide problems, relationships between participating agencies, and serves as an advisory and policy-forming group. It is important that the central committee refer all local problems in delinquency prevention to a neighborhood council.

The executive board is limited to the head of each member agency or a representative designated by him. Included are the police chief (or head of the juvenile or crime-prevention division), the superintendent of schools (or the head of the visiting teachers or the unit concerned with problem children), and the judge of the juvenile court (or the chief probation officer). The board membership may be further augmented

by regional representatives of local (neighborhood) councils. Plans for community council activities and agency relationships should be recommended to the central committee for action. Neither the chairman nor the executive board should take action in the name of the community council except on approval of the central committee.

The factors previously mentioned may justify substantial modification of the organization structure, especially toward its simplification in communities having smaller areas, fewer residences, and greater homogeneity. For example, the central committee would serve as the community council in communities having but one council, and the executive board would then be expanded to include the heads of other agencies. The membership of the central committee would then include active workers in addition to the heads of agencies.

The neighborhood council is the operating unit of the community organization for delinquency prevention. It should be composed of members of the agencies represented in the central committee but at a lower level, *i.e.*, at the level of execution rather than direction, as, for example, a visiting teacher, a deputy probation officer, a police juvenile-division worker, instead of the superintendent of schools, the judge of the juvenile court or the chief probation officer, and the chief of police. Civic clubs and other organizations having special interest in crime prevention should likewise be represented, usually by the chairman of the crime-prevention committee or a representative appointed by him or by the president of the club. Since the local community council is a democratic organization, the membership should be open to all persons in the community who are interested in crime prevention, including lay persons. The neighborhood council should appoint three standing committees: on adjustment, environment, and character building. Other committees, either standing or special, that may be created include: survey and research, recreation, health, religious education, vocational guidance, parent education, and employment for youth. The membership, function, and procedure of the three standing committees of the Los Angeles County councils are described by Scudder and Beam in *Who Is Delinquent* as follows:

1. *Adjustment Committee*⁸

- I. Membership. A committee of three should be chosen from the following organizations whenever possible: schools, police, departments of welfare, health, probation, Children's Protective Association, Catholic Welfare Association, Jewish Welfare Association, Church Federation (Los Angeles), Family Welfare Association, the Assistance League, and other case-work.

agencies. It is suggested that the secretary of this committee, whenever possible, be a trained social worker.

II. Function. To develop a procedure so easy of application and to make facilities so well known that officials and other members of the committee will refer problems of younger children to the proper agency at the time assistance is needed without waiting for a committee meeting. This can best be done by regular meetings of officials and representatives of case-working agencies where the members become acquainted with each other, the procedures and problems in each department and agency, and changes in personnel and programs.

Each member of this committee should extend the usefulness of council procedures and council data concerning facilities and resources by giving this information to the other workers in his agency.

The adjustment committee does not conduct case studies, but it does see that the problems of individual children are assigned to the proper agency for adjustment.

III. Procedure

1. To discover and list all case-work agencies and other facilities available for this committee in its own council district.
2. The cases of younger children presenting behavior or health problems or who for any reason seem to be in danger of becoming delinquent are referred to the adjustment committee by any member of that committee. Nonmembers may refer cases to the secretary or to any member for presentation.
3. The agency referring the case should clear with the social service exchange before bringing it to the attention of the committee. In smaller communities having no social service exchange, agencies should clear with each other on cases before action is taken by the adjustment committee. If the case is active with one or more agencies, the adjustment committee should invite representatives of these agencies to be present when the case is discussed.
4. The worker representing the case should submit it on the form known as coordinating council case record. These forms should be filled out in duplicate, one to go to the agency to which it is referred, and the other to be kept by the secretary of the committee.
5. At the meeting of the adjustment committee new cases are discussed at sufficient length to warrant a decision as to which agency can provide the best program of adjustment, the decision resting on the age and sex of the child, his religious background, the school attended, his known interests, the agencies already acquainted with the situation, the agencies available in the child's community, and other factors revealed in the report or brought out in the discussion.
6. The secretary, at succeeding meetings, asks for brief reports on developments in the cases. Entries are made on the back of the case record indicating the status at the time of entry.

7. The following agencies and facilities have been used, the agencies mentioned first being used for the less serious problems and the other agencies for the more serious problems until the juvenile court is made use of as the last resort: (A) playgrounds; (B) character-building organizations; (C) case-work agencies [(1) public and private agencies; (2) clinic service; (3) probation department]; (D) juvenile court.
8. Child guidance conferences in elementary schools have had great value in discovering and adjusting the problems of younger children. The adjustment committees will find it worth while to study this plan and assist in extending the service of these conferences.
9. The adjustment committee should consider it their responsibility to report, to the council chairman, needs and conditions in the community that require special study. The members of this committee come in contact with local conditions as other members do not. They should report the need of character-building and recreation facilities, as well as the existence of conditions that should be eliminated or improved.
10. This committee is also responsible for providing constructive plans for boys and girls returned from correctional institutions.

*. Environment Committee **

- I. Membership. Representatives of parent-teachers associations, service clubs, women's clubs, American Legion and auxiliary, churches, schools, other local adult groups, and other institutions or organizations interested in the welfare of children from the point of view of the community or home environment.
- II. Function
 1. To improve the community and home environments by study of the assets, liabilities, and needs of the community; by counteracting or eliminating undesirable influences; by improving constructive influences; by a campaign of education to improve home environment and by strengthening the character-building programs.
 2. The environment committee does not assume responsibility for changing conditions; it obtains information regarding the needs of the community and places this information and constructive plans in the hands of the organizations best equipped to get the desired results.
 3. Having determined the needs and having placed the information in the hands of the proper organizations, it should be the responsibility of this committee to lend assistance and backing to those organizations and to see that these projects are successfully carried through.
- III. Procedure
 - A. Study of community assets, liabilities, and needs.
 1. To discover and list all civic organizations, such as are represented on this committee, that seek to improve the community and home environment, particularly as the environment affects the character of children and youth.

* *Ibid.*, pp. 45-47.

2. To study local ordinances and state laws relating to children and youth, and to recommend action toward the improvement of these ordinances and laws when the need is clear.
3. To secure information regarding the standards maintained by amusement centers, particularly as to the patronage of minors and the influence on minors, including in this study (a) motion-picture theaters, (b) pool halls, (c) dance halls, (d) beer halls, and (e) questionable amusements that might lead to gambling.
4. To secure information regarding reading matter and the dissemination of information liable to exert an unwholesome influence on youth, including:
 - a. Salacious literature and pictures, such as contained in the cheap, unwholesome magazines on many newsstands, and in certain books in circulation from rental libraries.
 - b. Certain modern advertising, such as used sometimes by motion-picture exhibitors, theaters, liquor interests, and tobacco companies.
 - c. Radio programs depicting disrupted family life, crime, and vulgarity.
 - d. The so-called "comic" supplements, involving questionable advertising and situations.
5. To list the needs of the community from the point of view of the child, using the Children's Charter as a standard.

B. Counteract or eliminate undesirable influences.

1. When it is apparent that the character of children is being seriously affected by such amusement centers as listed under section A, paragraph 3 (a to e), or by other unwholesome conditions, to ask those in possession of the most authentic information to report conditions, through the coordinating council, to the proper authorities.
2. When no law is being violated by the amusement centers referred to in the foregoing list, but where the influence is still unwholesome, to encourage the conducting of more wholesome recreational activities under adequate supervision as a counterattraction.
3. To give full publicity to the present laws relating to the sale of liquor to minors and to encourage citizens to report any violation of these laws.

C. Improve constructive influences.

1. To awaken communities to the need of more adequate facilities, both public and private, for constructive use of free time, especially during summer months. Playgrounds and recreation centers should provide for constructive use of the free time of unemployed young people and adults as well as play facilities for children.
2. To encourage and support in every way possible the parent-teachers association and other organizations working to secure motion-picture programs appropriate for children to attend on Saturdays, and to

improve the general standard of motion pictures by encouraging patronage of acceptable pictures and by other means.

3. To encourage the sponsorship of well-supervised dances for young people by the community organization best equipped to assume this responsibility.
4. To encourage all organizations represented on this committee, and other civic organizations, to include in their programs some project for the improvement of the community or home environment. The environment committee can assist organizations in the selection of such projects, based on their study of conditions and needs.

D. Educational program to improve home environment.

1. To encourage courses in adult education under approved leadership, particularly courses in parent education, home building, child care, and family recreation.
2. To encourage courses for young people under approved leadership in home building, preparation for marriage, parenthood, and child care.
3. To develop plans for giving individual consideration to parents of children with problems, in order that the facilities of the parent education courses and, if possible, consultation service may be provided.
4. To see that literature for parents is accessible in the libraries, that pamphlets are for sale at minimum cost, and that free leaflets are provided.
5. To recommend to churches that they accept greater responsibility for maintaining the stability of the home, for conducting classes in parent education, and for assisting in the solution of some of the many problems with which modern families are faced.

E. Strengthening the character-building program.

1. To aid in publicizing the program and objectives of the character-building agencies through providing speakers on special programs at organization meetings.
2. To further the work of the character-building organizations by sponsoring training courses and aiding in recruiting prospective leaders.
3. To encourage among member organizations the sponsorship of character-building groups. The organization sponsoring a group is to furnish leadership and give such support as to ensure its permanency. The leaders selected should be enrolled in training courses provided by the character-building committee.

3. Character-building Committee⁶

- I. Membership. Representatives of schools, churches, playgrounds, libraries, Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Woodcraft Rangers, Girl Scouts, Y.W.C.A., Camp Fire Girls, and other character-building organizations.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 38-39.

II. Function. To see that the coordinating council district is adequately supplied with character-building groups and recreational facilities for both boys and girls, and that as many children as possible receive individual attention and planned programs throughout the entire year.

The character-building committee does not organize new character-building agencies, but it does see that the character-building needs of the community are referred to the proper organization for action and report.

III. Procedure

1. To discover by survey or questionnaire:

- a. Available character-building facilities and groups in the community.

- b. The children who need or would like to belong to character-building groups.

- c. The areas not sufficiently covered by character-building groups.

(In this study both the adjustment committee and the environment committee should give valuable assistance.) This study should reveal the name, age, and address of both boys and girls who would like to belong to a character-building group and their group preference. A questionnaire has been devised for this purpose.

2. To submit the results of this study to the council of social agencies or other authorized group before any program of expansion is undertaken.

3. To arrange training courses for prospective leaders of character-building groups. General training should be provided by the committee. Specific training in a particular program should follow, given by each character-building agency, as opportunity affords.

The environment committee should cooperate by sponsoring such courses, and accept their responsibility in recruiting prospective leaders.

A statement of standards and qualifications for leaders, such as developed by the boys' and girls' work committee of the Los Angeles Council of Social Agencies, should be the guide in the selection of leaders.

4. To urge that attractive activity programs for young people be conducted by recognized character-building agencies both public and private, with special emphasis on the unemployed young men and women from seventeen to twenty-five years of age.
5. When individual children are referred to this committee by the committee on adjustment, to endeavor to place each one in the character-building group best equipped in leadership and membership to make a proper adjustment.
6. To encourage the use of public libraries by children, and stimulate the reading of books and magazines that have a constructive influence on character.
7. To encourage greater use of existing playgrounds by children and adults, and to cooperate with the environment committee in planning to increase or improve playground facilities.

POLICE ADMINISTRATION

8. To assemble information regarding the most constructive efforts being made by schools toward the development of character, through curricular or extracurricular activities, and to share this information with the schools in the coordinating council district.
9. To assemble information regarding the most constructive use made of church facilities for social and recreational purposes, particularly by underprivileged groups, and to share this information with the churches in the district and with the executive board.
10. To see that as many children as possible have opportunities for camping, hikes, and outdoor activities, under the direction of some character-building agency, emphasizing the value of this experience for those boys and girls who are denied many such privileges.

Chapter 25

PLANNING

Success in any endeavor is dependent on preparation; a first step in preparing is to plan the operation or campaign. If the police are to be prepared to meet emergencies and to deal wisely with the many complex situations that confront them each day, they must plan procedures to be used and steps to be taken. Wisely conceived plans executed by suitably trained officers assure successful police administration.

Situations that call for police action may be classified according to the general nature of the action to be taken and a procedure developed for each. Examples include the dispatcher's duties on receipt of a call that a criminal is in a building, the duties of officers sent to the scene, the procedure to be used in getting desperate criminals out of a building, in stopping a suspicious car, in handling suspects and prisoners, and so on. The procedure may not be sufficiently precise to outline in exact detail what is to be done in every possible situation because human conduct is subject to infinite variations. Some action based on quick decisions must be taken on the spot to supplement planned procedures by filling in the details. Planning should be so complete, however, that nothing is left for the quick decision of line officers, that could be decided in reflective planning.

The organization of the force to ensure adequate planning was explained in Chap. 4. The present chapter discusses what is to be planned and who is to do it.

To simplify the discussion that follows, police plans have been divided into five categories, *viz.*, procedures, tactics, operations, extradepartmental activities, and plans of management.

PROCEDURAL PLANS

Standard operating procedures must be planned to guide members in routine office and field operations and in some special operations.

Office Procedure. While other office procedures need to be outlined, the two principal ones are reporting regulations and records-division operations. Forms must also be drafted to assure dissemination of statistical information.

Reporting Regulations. The large number of forms used in police departments and the variation in the number and routing of copies make it desirable that instructions be printed on each form to assist the officer in determining which form is to be used for a particular purpose, the number of copies to be made, and where they are to be routed. In spite of this precaution it is usually desirable to provide separate instructions in the form of reporting regulations to guide the members of the force in these matters.

Records-division Operations. The intricate and interrelated nature of records-division operations makes important an assurance that each task is performed in the manner prescribed; records-division operations give this assurance.¹

Statistical Reports to Divisions and District Stations. Decisions must be made as to the frequency and nature of statistical information that is to be supplied to heads of divisions and district stations. Forms must be drafted to simplify the presentation of the material, and procedures must be outlined to assure their preparation and prompt distribution.

Field Procedures. Procedures not limited in application to a specific location but intended to be used in all situations of a kind should be outlined as a guide to officers in the field. Routine operations to be covered should include touring the beat, inspecting alleys, recreational establishments, and other places, trying store doors and windows, transporting prisoners, receiving complaints, and the investigation of crimes, accidents, vice conditions, and juveniles. The use of physical force and clubs, restraining devices, firearms, bullet-resisting shields, tear gas, and armored cars should also be outlined. Officers need guidance in dealing with people so as to provide maximum safety for themselves and minimum inconvenience to the public. Detailed instructions should be prepared for approaching a violator, stopping suspicious persons on foot or in an automobile, searching and questioning suspects, dealing with drunks, and answering a call that a criminal is in operation.

Headquarters Procedures. There are a number of procedures which must be performed at headquarters that may be incorporated into the duty manual as duties of certain officers, such as the lieutenant, dispatcher, jailer, and matron, rather than as separate procedures. This applies especially to procedures that are the responsibility of only one person or one class of persons. Procedures that involve coordinated action or the activity of several officers, however, should be established separately. Examples include the use of the telephone for local and long-distance

¹ For a more detailed description of the need for, and nature and use of, records-division operations see Chap. 13. An example of records-division operations is found in *Police Records*, pp. 272-287.

calls, the police radio, intercommunicating equipment, teletype, and recall lights; others relate to the use of supplies and headquarters facilities and to the care and maintenance of equipment, such as motor vehicles, communications, and armaments by headquarters personnel rather than by officers in the field.

Special Operating Procedures. Certain special operations also necessitate the preparation of procedures as guides. Included are the organization and administration of schoolboy patrols (see Chap. 8), operation of the special investigator charged with the search for and preservation of physical evidence at the scenes of crimes and accidents (see Chap. 7), the control of licenses, the checking of homes left temporarily vacant, inspection of stores, filing of identifying numbers on privately owned property, temporary safeguarding of privately owned valuables,² dissemination of information among merchants of the operation of criminals, tours of inspection of police headquarters, and other special department contacts with the public, and the speakers' bureau (see Chap. 23).

TACTICAL PLANS

Procedures for coping with specific situations at known locations should also be planned. Included in this category are plans for dealing with attacks against buildings with alarm systems and against police headquarters by lynching mobs. Plans must also be made for blockades and jail emergencies and for special community events, such as large public meetings, athletic contests, parades, Halloween celebrations, carnivals, and other street affairs.³

OPERATIONAL PLANS

Plans for the operation of the special divisions consist of two types: (1) those designed to meet everyday, year-round needs, which are the regular operating programs of the divisions, and (2) those designed to meet unusual needs, the result of intermittent, and usually unexpected, variations in activities that demand their attention.

Regular Operating Programs. The operating divisions must have specific plans to meet current needs. The man power of each must be distributed throughout the hours of operation and throughout the area of jurisdiction in proportion to need. For example, the most desirable

² Procedures relating to the control of licenses, vacation homes, and store inspections are described in *Police Records*, pp. 82-86. They are also discussed in Chap. 22.

³ A discussion of tactical plans may be found in *Police Records*, pp. 245-253.

shift hours must be determined, the patrol force must be distributed among the shifts, and the jurisdiction must be divided into beats for each shift.⁴ The intermittent need at particularly hazardous intersections in the congested district necessitates assignments that will assure the most productive use of the officers at times when not so occupied. Assignment schedules must be prepared that integrate such factors as relief days, lunch periods, and hours, nature, and location of regular work. Plans must also assure suitable supervision which becomes more difficult when the regular assignment is interrupted to deal with these short-time, periodic needs.

Data should be compiled showing the points of greatest hazard on each beat. A small pocket spot map for each beat permits recording by symbols the important crime and accident hazards. A weekly traffic beat card on which are inserted in parallel columns accidents and arrests, showing for each the location, hour, and violation, shows by comparison the degree of selectiveness of enforcement.⁵

Specialized assignments must be worked out for the detective and juvenile divisions to provide approximately equal work loads, taking into consideration variations in the importance of cases and the average time required to investigate them. Assignments of officers to divisions should be on the basis of need, and within divisions they should be made on the basis of special ability and interest.

Special programs must be developed to meet particular needs in each field of activity. For example, the traffic division will need programs of enforcement, public education, and engineering. Each of these may comprise several individual programs; the program of public education, for example, may consist of programs directed at pedestrians, motorists, school children, churchgoers, elderly people, and at people residing in a certain district. The juvenile division will need programs designed to make better citizens of delinquent and predelinquent children, and operational plans intended to eliminate certain delinquency-inducing factors in the community. They will also need plans to obtain assistance from all community agencies in the diagnosis and treatment of certain delinquents.

Meeting Unusual Needs. Regular operating programs of the specialized divisions are based on the assumption, proved valid by experience, that the nature, frequency, time, and place of occurrences that call for police action may be predicted. Variations in the average need, however, result

⁴ See Chap. 6 and for a detailed explanation of the distribution of the police patrol force, see the Appendix.

⁵ A sample of the weekly traffic beat card and a description of its use is found in *Police Records*, pp. 140-141.

from sporadic criminal activities and from the unusual situations and circumstances creating irregular, out-of-the-ordinary demands for police service. The unusual need may arise in any field of police activity.

The unusual need is nearly always met in the detective, vice, and juvenile divisions by temporary readjustment of regular assignments. For example, a sudden surge of residence burglaries may result in a case load beyond the capacity of the detective, or detectives, assigned. Some of the cases may be assigned to other detectives, such as those regularly assigned to the investigation of nonresidence burglaries, whose current load may be lighter than usual, or to one whose load is relatively lighter. Infrequently will it be necessary to augment the strength of these divisions to meet such unusual needs. Unusual needs in the traffic and patrol divisions may also be met by such internal adjustments, except when the need is great.

Needs beyond the capacity of man power adequate for the regular operating programs are imposed on the traffic division by community events that create unusual traffic-control problems and on the patrol division by unusual criminal activities, such as a series of robberies, burglaries, or other crimes committed by one or more persons, and usually during the same hours of the day, days of the week, and in the same section of the city. Plans must be made to meet these needs.⁶

When the need is precisely met by a previously developed tactical plan, the planning will consist of nothing more than assigning officers to implement it. In some instances, however, modifications of the tactical plan will be needed, and, if the need arises in a location or is of a kind for which a tactical plan was not previously prepared, a complete plan must be developed, applying previously developed field procedures. Examples would be a strike or riot, or a series of crimes at unpredictable locations.

The more-than-ordinary man power made necessary by these special community events and unusual criminal activities may be provided by requiring officers to work overtime. Communities of more than 75,000 population, however, usually need a special squad, ordinarily assigned to the traffic division for enforcement duties that may be temporarily neglected, to meet any unusual traffic or crime need.⁷ In large cities where these unusual needs are sufficient to keep such a squad busy

⁶ For detailed discussion, see *ibid.*, pp. 242-245.

⁷ The use of this squad was discussed in Chap. 8. As previously stated, the unusual needs being discussed here are the principal justification for the creation of such a squad; otherwise the regulation of all traffic, except in the congested districts, should be left to the regular patrol.

throughout the year and hence not available for traffic enforcement, it should be assigned to the patrol division. This is frequently the case in cities of more than a half million population, and it is nearly always true in cities of more than a million, in which the needs in both fields may be sufficiently great to justify the provision of a special squad in each. Either special squad may be temporarily assigned to assist in handling unusually grave needs in the field of the other. In spite of the use of special squads, situations may arise requiring further reinforcements by overtime work of regular patrolmen.

Whether the need created by unusual criminal activity is met by overtime work of regular personnel, by a special traffic squad, or by a crime-crusher detail in the patrol division, decisions must be made for each assignment as to the hours they are to work, whether they are to patrol or be assigned to spots for surveillance, whether they are to work in uniform or plain clothes,⁸ how they are to maintain communications with headquarters or with the supervising officer, how they are to be transported to their assignment and from it to the next assignment in the event more than one is covered on each tour of duty, which will frequently be the case. These decisions necessitate analysis of facts and sometimes an actual survey of the terrain.

EXTRADEPARTMENTAL PLANS

Plans must be made to organize the community in the manner described in Chap. 24. In addition the community must be organized to meet disasters. Catastrophes such as earthquakes, tornadoes, fires, and floods may be so extensive as to require the coordination of all community resources, usually accomplished under the leadership of the local chapter of the American Red Cross. Other emergencies, such as explosions and less extensive fires and storms, may require the coordination of several municipal departments and all law-enforcement bodies. Some, such as riots and other unusually serious crimes, are exclusively police in character and, while not requiring the coordination of other agencies, may require the mobilization and direction of the entire force and its co-ordination with other law-enforcement agencies.⁹ Organization and op-

erating plans for civil defense should also be prepared for use in the event of war.¹⁰

MANAGEMENT PLANS

Plans of management map out in advance all operations involved in the organization and management of personnel and matériel and in the procurement and disburscment of money.

Budget Planning. Present and future money needs for personnel, equipment, and capital investments must be estimated and plans for supporting budget requests must be made if needed appropriations are to be obtained. Work programs must be planned in order to ascertain future needs in equipment, space, and personnel. Surveys must be made to ascertain the need of replacing worn or outmoded equipment or to meet an expanded need in transportation, communications, office, weapons, laboratory, traffic control, maintenance, accounting, and jail. An itemized budget estimate must be prepared to show expenditures that must be made to carry out the work program.¹¹

Accounting Procedure. Accounting procedures must be established and expenditure reports provided to assist in making administrative decisions and in holding expenditure within appropriations.¹²

Specifications and Purchasing Procedure. Specifications must be drawn for equipment and supplies, and purchasing procedures established that assure a check of deliveries against the specification of orders.¹³ Plans and specifications must be drafted for new buildings and for remodeling old ones.

Personnel. Procedures must be established to assure carrying out the personnel program described in Chaps. 19 to 21 and the allocation of personnel among the component organization units in proportion to need.

Recruitment. The steps in the recruitment procedure should be outlined from the announcement of examinations to the final appointment

of the successful candidates. A plan should be developed for the announcement of examinations by press, radio, poster, or bulletin, and communications to groups containing potential candidates. A brochure should be prepared describing the conditions of service (salary, days of rest and annual leave, sick benefits, retirement, pension provisions for dependents, and uniform and equipment expenses) and standards of height, weight, age, and education. Minimum standards of agility, strength, intelligence, and physical and nervous condition should be established and arrangements made for the measurement and appraisal of these qualities. Procedures should be established for oral interviews, the investigation of the character of candidates, and the selection of the best candidates for appointment (see Chap. 19).

Training. Recruit and in-service training should also be planned. Curricula, schedules, lesson plans, training aids, and examinations should be prepared. When the training is part time, the program must be integrated into the work schedule. Guides and check lists should be prepared for the field instructors to assure complete coverage of all training subjects by explanation and demonstration and to assist them in supervising the patrol work of the recruits (see Chap. 21).

Allocation and Assignment of Personnel. Decisions must be made as to the proportional distribution of personnel among the component units of the department on the basis of need and selections for assignment made on the basis of interest, experience, and ability. In large departments forms should be prepared which will enable the administrative head to know at a glance from day to day the number of personnel actively working in each unit in order to detect a dangerous depletion of man power in one unit due to relief days, illness, and transfer. In smaller departments this need is met by the daily summary.¹⁴

Appraisal of Value to the Service. Procedures must be developed and forms devised to assure an accurate record of the accomplishments of individual officers and of incidents that give evidence of the presence or lack of leadership qualities. A service rating should also be devised and procedures adopted to assure a periodic rating of all officers so that those who are substantially above average and those who are deficient may be discovered.¹⁵

Selection for Promotion. A procedure for the selection of the best man for promotion should be prepared and publicized among members of the organization (see Chap. 20).

¹⁴ A discussion of the daily summary and suitable forms for this purpose are found in *ibid.*, p. 206.

¹⁵ A discussion of records of accomplishment and rating systems is found in *ibid.*, pp. 140, 143, 160-163, and in Chap. 20.

Discipline. A department procedure for disposing of disciplinary cases should be prepared and publicized among the members (see Chap. 21).

Welfare. Provision must be made for retirement, sick leave, days of rest and annual leave, medical attention and hospitalization, compensation for overtime either by time off or pay, and procedures governing each should be outlined and made known to all members of the force.

Organization. A basic organization plan of the department must be made and posted for the guidance of the force. For the organization chart to be meaningful, it must be accompanied by a duty manual which will define relationships between the component units in terms of the specific responsibilities of each. The duty manual should incorporate department rules and regulations and it should contain:

Definition of Terms. In order to avoid possible misunderstanding, it is important that terms used by the organization should have only one meaning clearly understood by all (see Chap. 1).

Organization of Rank. The relative grades of all ranks within the department must be established so that there will never be any doubt as to who is superior in rank and who is in charge of any situation (see Chaps. 1 and 3).

General Rules and Duties. Rules governing the conduct of all members of the force and duties that apply to all, without regard to the organizational unit to which they may be assigned, should be published in the duty manual.

General Duties of Superior Officers. The duties of the chief of police, of commanding officers, of superior officers, and of captains, without regard to the organizational unit to which they may be assigned, should be outlined.

The Function, Organization, and Duties of the Various Divisions. It is in the description of the functions of the various divisions and the duties of its component members that the organization chart of the department finally takes specific form. Such definitions reduce the friction that develops from the overlapping performance of duties and lessen the possibility of neglect of important tasks.

STEPS IN PLANNING

Planning involves finding the facts and analyzing them to determine present and foresee future needs, and then selecting methods and developing procedures to meet the needs. The plan is the detailed outline of the procedure to be used. The following steps must be taken in the development of the plan: (1) The need for the plan must be recognized during the process of inspection. An apparent need must be verified

by a more intensive investigation and analysis. (2) The objective (the mission) must be stated and the general method of operation (the manner in which the objective is to be attained) must be determined. For example, the objective may be the apprehension of a house prowler. The method to be used may be either to put a watch on pawnshops where he has been disposing of his loot, or to provide a more intensive patrol in the area where he has been operating. (3) Data necessary in the development of the plan must be gathered and analyzed. Included will be answers to the questions what, where, when, who, and how. (4) The details of the plan must be developed: Personnel and equipment must be organized, procedures developed or applied, schedules drawn, and assignments made.

Recording Plans. The manner of recording plans is determined by the use that is to be made of the document and by the probable frequency of amendment. Some procedures, such as records-division operations, are used principally by records-division personnel and are subject to occasional modification; consequently there are advantages in recording these operations on 8- by 5-inch cards filed in the records office convenient for consultation by records personnel.¹⁶ Since prepared broadcasts are used only by the dispatchers, they too may be placed on 8- by 5-inch cards and filed at the dispatcher's desk.¹⁷

A duty manual is essential to assure complete dissemination of information relating to the organization of the department and of the functions and duties of its component units and the duties of the individual members. Field procedures should be incorporated into it or presented as a separate manual. The manuals should be loose-leaf to permit additions and changes at minimum expense.

Personnel procedures for recruitment and training are of principal use to the personnel officer, whereas procedures relating to the promotion, discipline, and welfare of personnel should be included in the duty manual so that the information may be disseminated throughout the force.

Plans for special community events and for disasters should be suitably filed so that they may be readily available when needed. Operational plans will be in the form of assignment sheets, beat or route layouts, and special instructions.

Selling the Plan. Plans do not succeed unless they are understood and approved by the personnel charged with their operation. One of the best ways to sell a plan is to get those who will carry it out to assist in its preparation. Plans should be cooperative projects of the force—

¹⁶ For a description of this file, see *Police Records*, pp. 173-174 and 272-287.

¹⁷ For samples of prepared broadcasts, see *ibid.*, pp. 246-253.

not imposed on them from above. It is important that the plans and their purpose be explained to operating personnel and that they be trained in their application.

Plans that affect the public likewise must be understood and approved by the citizens concerned. Newspapers and radio are the most effective media for explaining police plans and their purpose to the public, thus winning their support and compliance.

Critique. After a plan has been placed in operation, a critique should be held by personnel engaged in its execution with a view to discovering and strengthening weaknesses. This applies especially to plans relating to community events, to grave crimes, to disasters and emergencies, and to recruitment and training procedures, but it applies also to all other plans. Continuous study of a plan in operation permits improvement, which is especially important in the case of newly developed procedures.

Research Essential to Wise Planning. Successful operations are dependent on well-conceived plans. Suitable plans are designed to meet specific needs. The police administrator, therefore, should make provision for continuous research by inspection, inventory, analysis, and experiment designed to discover the need for changes by evaluating the suitability of department organization, and the effectiveness of operations, procedures, and tactics.

The need for research must be emphasized. Industrial organizations, in order to survive in a highly competitive field, carry on intensive research to discover new and improved procedures and to evaluate the effectiveness of their advertising, selling, and production, and of their personnel administration. The police executive should do the same in order to keep his department and its operations up to date.

Research enables the evaluation of the relative effectiveness of the various police operations and methods. The effectiveness of the treatment accorded the traffic violator and the delinquent, the value of *modus operandi* and other systems of identification, and the suitability of procedures used in the office and in the field must be appraised if improvements are to be made. Research is needed to ascertain the optimum case load for detectives and adjustment officers and also to analyze the operation of a newly developed plan so that weak points may be discovered and strengthened.

Responsibility for Planning. Planning is an administrative responsibility that cannot be avoided by the police executive. A plan will not be developed until the need is discovered by the process of inspection. Discovery of need in their fields is the responsibility of the operating units. The head of the unit cannot shift this responsibility any more

than can the chief of police, but he may charge his subordinates to be on the alert for evidence of such need. Evidence may be found at any level of authority, but when the operating unit fails to discover the need, the final responsibility rests upon the chief. It is when the operating units fail that inspectional control is vital to effective administration (see Chap. 4).

The efficient administration of a police department requires a frequent critical and objective examination of the organization and its operations by those who direct its activities. An unbiased appraisal of police objectives and of the machinery and methods designed for their attainment is imperative if improvement in operations and progress in accomplishment are to be made. The chief and his division heads cannot administer their programs effectively without taking inventory in this manner. Sometimes preoccupation with the details of the moment prevent them from seeing clearly where they are headed.

Such an inventory is especially important before the initiation of changes in organization, policy, or procedure; it provides facts relating to what has been done in the past and what is currently being done, and these assist the command group in formulating plans for the future.

To guide police officials who wish to make such an appraisal, a check list is included in the Appendix, page 513. The questions relate to the principles and procedures considered effective in achieving better police control that have been discussed in previous chapters. Affirmative answers to all the questions, as applied to local conditions, indicate a well-rounded, properly administered program of police service. Negative answers, on the other hand, point out weak points that need development and improvement.

The utilization of this check list, however, will prove of value only in so far as it is conscientiously applied. This caution applies especially to questions that relate to degree rather than those readily answered by categorical "yes" or "no." Wise administrators seek to discover and correct defects, not to ignore and avoid them.

Chapter 26

LEADERSHIP

The police chief has a dual leadership responsibility. He must provide leadership within the department, and as the head of the force he must represent it in relations with the administrative head of the city (or the chairman of a police board) and through him with the municipal council and the public. While the present discussion of leadership within the department is directed primarily at the chief, the suggestions are nearly all applicable to his subordinates in supervisory and command positions; they are also leaders, though restricted in minor respects.

LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT

This book has attempted to show how the three basic processes of planning, doing, and controlling are facilitated by suitable organization. The difficulties of coordination arising out of the necessary division of the force into functional, time, and place units may be overcome by defining the duties and relationships of the units in such a manner that the force will operate as a well-articulated, cohesive unit. The quality of the resulting police service is then limited only by the capacity of the members of the force. The principal task of leadership within this organization is to assure that the efforts of all members are stimulated to capacity and harmoniously and effectively directed toward the primary police objectives.

Leadership Results. The quality of leadership is reflected in the appearance, spirit, bearing, demeanor, words, actions, and work of subordinates. The members of a force under superior leadership enjoy doing their work, have a feeling of elation on its accomplishment, are proud of their department, praise their superiors, carry out instructions and requests cheerfully and willingly, and work indefatigably for long hours under uncomfortable conditions without question or complaint. In contrast, subordinates under inferior leadership are frequently dissatisfied with their jobs, dislike their duties, resent instructions and requests from their superiors, and avoid accepting new responsibilities. They side-step routine tasks at every opportunity or perform them with a feeling of resentment amounting almost to hatred, often protesting assignments

and instructions or accepting them sullenly. Good leadership is a catalytic agent that transforms indifferent, dissatisfied, disloyal, and inefficient policemen into loyal, agreeable, hard-working, interested, and efficient men who derive great satisfaction in the accomplishment of their jobs. Under good leadership the harmonious and effective effort of all members is directed in maximum degree toward the accomplishment of the police purpose.

Leading vs. Commanding. The essence of leadership is the ability to obtain from each member of the force the highest quality of service that he has the capacity to render; it is not the exercise of authority through commands and threat of punishment for noncompliance. Some police chiefs erroneously assume that the strength and frequency with which commands are barked and the exclusive use by the executive of the power of decision are evidences of strong leadership. The good executive makes fewer rather than more decisions; the strong leader directs and coordinates more by inspiration and enthusiasm than by the authority of command.¹

Technical compliance with instructions exacted from the members of the force by threat of disciplinary action will not satisfactorily accomplish the police purpose. Success is dependent on the leader persuading his subordinates to do his bidding in an enthusiastic manner that will assure maximum harmony and effectiveness in work. Success in leadership is measurable in terms of the wholehearted compliance of all members of the force with the spirit of departmental plans of action.²

Qualities of Leadership. Qualities of the leader that induce subordinates to render their best service vary widely, since they reflect his total personality. Personalities vary, and the successful leader does not act out of character by aping the characteristics of another in the belief that such behavior rubs the Aladdin's lamp of leadership; instead he does what is natural for him. Superior leaders are nearly always intelligent men, emotionally stable and physically strong, who have contagious enthusiasm and forceful personalities that seem to reach out and grip people who come under their influence. In addition to these qualities, or as the result of them, successful leaders have the ability to win the

confidence, inspire the loyalty, and maintain the enthusiastic interest of subordinates. These three abilities are so vital to leadership as to deserve particular study. The police chief who fails to win the confidence, loyalty, and enthusiastic interest of his subordinates fails as a leader, no matter how informed he may be or how sound his judgment on administrative and technical matters.

Confidence in the Leader. The leader must win the confidence of his men in his ability, principles, and programs. Qualities of the leader that tend to induce such confidence include (1) a strong belief in his own competence to deal successfully with any situation that may develop and an ability to display his self-confidence in a natural and acceptable manner; (2) knowledge and skill in his own job and in the work of his subordinates; (3) a willingness and ability to make decisions promptly but not hastily; (4) an insistence on having all the facts before taking action; (5) soundness of judgment; (6) a willingness and ability to accept responsibility and especially to accept liability for failures without passing the blame on to subordinates; (7) an ability to maintain poise (mentally, physically, and emotionally) under criticism and attack; (8) the initiative to investigate unsatisfactory conditions and the courage to take corrective action; (9) absence of prejudices, especially in reference to race, politics, religion, and labor; (10) unquestioned personal integrity and insistence that the department be free of graft, including petty hand-outs; (11) uncompromising attitude toward crime and corruption, but recognizing the necessity for correct timing in dealing with outside forces over which he exercises no direct control; (12) energy and a willingness and ability to work hard; (13) physically and emotionally able to withstand the strain of demands on his time, energy, and patience.

Loyalty to the Leader. The chief must inspire loyalty to himself and to his department. Loyalty is a feeling or attitude resulting from an emotional rather than an intellectual process and consequently is induced in one person by the feeling or attitude of another. Loyalty begets loyalty, and the leader will win loyalty somewhat in proportion to the loyalty he manifests to his subordinates. Loyalty is related to friendship, and friendship springs from and thrives on friendship. Friendship is a two-way flow of feeling; it takes two to make a friendship, just as it takes two to make a fight. The personal relationships between the leader and his subordinates influence the feeling between them. Actions that unnecessarily jeopardize a friendly feeling between them are to be avoided; actions that stimulate this feeling of friendship and loyalty are to be encouraged.

The leader must have a high order of social intelligence so that he may strengthen the rapport between himself and his subordinates and

avoid actions that may unnecessarily give offense. He must maintain an interest in the personal welfare of the members of his force, both within the organization and outside of it.³ He should work for the improvement of the conditions of service, especially in reference to provisions for suitable pay and length of the workweek, relief, pensions, and other benefits. He should not stand in the way of an advantageous future for any man but should stimulate the ambitions of all members, even though this may rob the department of the services of competent officers.

The leader must not be arbitrary, tyrannical, or capricious; he must maintain a frank, fair, reasonable, and open-minded attitude reflecting a willingness to discuss the pros and cons on any question. He should maintain an open-door policy toward all members of the force, urging them to discuss with him any matter of interest to them and welcoming them when they call.⁴ He should back his subordinates when they are right; he should engender a feeling of security among the officers and avoid giving the impression that they may be disciplined or dismissed from service on slight provocation.

In exercising his power of command, the leader will distinguish between written and verbal orders and between orders given under combat conditions and those not given under the necessity of immediate and decisive action. Written orders should be concise and unambiguous; verbal orders given during action, where time is essential, and in all radio broadcasts must likewise be unequivocal and precise. Orders under other conditions, however, are preferably presented as requests or wishes rather than as peremptory orders, with opportunity invariably given for clarification to assure that they are understood.

In investigating the need for disciplinary measures, the leader will initiate action promptly. Before disposing of it, however, he will invariably insist on having all the facts with special reference to the cause of the incident in order to discover whether it resulted from faulty instruction, poorly conceived procedure, or inadequate or otherwise unsuited supervision. He will discuss the problem with his subordinate privately, and in reaching a decision on suitable disposition, he will consider the welfare of the individual as well as the good of the service.

"In any long and bitter campaign morale will suffer unless all ranks thoroughly believe that their commanders are concerned first and always with the welfare of the troops who do the fighting. A human understanding and a natural ability to mingle with all men on a basis of equality are more important than any degree of technical skill." (*Ibid.*, p. 210.)

Should this practice occupy too much time, the busy executive should set aside one morning or afternoon each week for this exclusive purpose.

The chief should establish friendly relationships with all members of his force and should circulate through the department and attend roll calls in order to have personal contacts with men at work. He should never be too busy to speak to an officer whom he meets either on the street or at police quarters.

Enthusiastic Interest in the Job. It is an important task of leadership to create and maintain an enthusiastic interest by members of the force in their jobs and the satisfaction which comes from a sense of accomplishment. Interest is stimulated by the willingness and ability of the leader to take his subordinates into his confidence so that they may see and understand problems and prospects. He must make them partners in the police venture so that their routine tasks will be more interesting. A partnership is not a one-man show. He must seek and utilize their suggestions in order that each member may feel that he has a vested interest in the department and its operation. The leader must permit his subordinates to participate in decisions and in the development of plans and to share in department problems, criticisms, and commendations. He must delegate authority freely, permitting subordinates opportunity to exercise their initiative, judgment, and authority. He must have the initiative and courage to hold them responsible for the consequences of their acts and to require them in turn to hold their subordinates accountable. The objective should not be to punish for mistakes but to detect and overcome weaknesses and correct errors. The subordinates should know that they will have the understanding judgment of their leader in their mistakes and his sympathetic assistance when the error is one of judgment and not of heart and the consequences are not too serious.⁵

Promoting Confidence, Loyalty, and Interest. The leader finds that the extent of wholehearted compliance accorded by the members of his force is not static but fluctuates from day to day, and he must constantly strive to improve it and not permit it to dwindle through neglect. He must not allow the strain of criticism and administrative difficulties to be reflected in his demeanor, voice, facial expression, the words used, or conduct. Subordinates are quick to sense subtle changes and to over-emphasize their significance; they are prone to lose some confidence

"True delegation implies the courage and readiness to back up a subordinate to the full; it is not to be confused with the slovenly practice of merely ignoring an unpleasant situation in the hope that someone else will handle it. The men who operate thus are not only incompetent but are always quick to blame and punish the poor subordinate who, while attempting to do both his own and his commander's job, has taken some action that produces an unfortunate result." (Eisenhower, *op. cit.*, p. 40.)

in a leader who, in their opinion, gives evidence of not being able to stand the pace. For the same reason the leader must give attention to his state of health and nerves; he must also avoid being placed in an unfavorable light which may cause him to lose prestige in the eyes of his subordinates. He should likewise be observant for evidence of weakness in his subordinates that may result, under the stress of criticism and attack, in illegal or otherwise injudicious acts.

The leader should utilize two devices to aid in promoting the whole-hearted compliance of his force, i.e., conferences and commendations.

Conferences. Conferences are effective devices for promoting confidence, loyalty, and interest on the part of all members of the force. Active participation at meetings enables subordinate members to air their grievances, to criticize present and suggest new or modified policies, procedures, techniques, equipment, space, working conditions, training, and other matters relating to the organization and its operation. Conferences, therefore, provide an effective means for appraising and building morale; they promote the flow of information from lower to higher levels and horizontally for dissemination to all members of information relating to department activities outside their own orbits; they bring subordinates into a more active participation in the administration of police affairs. The interest of subordinates in their work and in the affairs of the department is thereby increased. Conferences also facilitate co-ordination and instruction and simplify the explanation of plans and procedures.

Conferences should be conducted in a businesslike manner in order to utilize the time of all members to best advantage. Participants should leave the meeting with a feeling of accomplishment, stimulated by a renewed interest in their work and inspired by a desire to attain new heights of accomplishment. Conferences should be planned with an agenda prepared and made known in advance to all conferees; they should convene and adjourn promptly, and a conclusion, clearly understood by all, should be reached on each item of business, or if agreement cannot be reached, the matter should be either tabled or postponed for further discussion when more facts are available. The leader must stimulate the active participation of the members by questions and by encouraging the presentation and discussion of divergent views. He must keep the discussion under control, however, and not permit it to wander afield from the problem under consideration; on the other hand, he must permit members to bring up for discussion at the opportune time matters in which they have an interest or grievance. Suitable action should be taken to implement conclusions reached, and a brief résumé of the conference should be prepared and distributed among the members.

The chief should conduct conferences so that the officers may come to know him personally and to have an opportunity to discuss with him matters of common interest. The membership and frequency of conferences will be influenced strongly by the size of the department and its organization. The chief should confer informally each day with his immediate subordinates, setting aside a time each morning for this purpose, although attendance should not be compulsory when pressing matters interfere. Attendance should be compulsory, however, at more formal weekly meetings that the chief should hold with his immediate subordinates and the next lower echelon. For example, in a large department with two or more assistant chiefs, the chief should meet informally each day with his assistants and each week more formally with the assistant chiefs and the division heads; in a smaller department, he should confer informally each day with division heads and more formally each week with division heads and their lieutenants; and in departments of fewer than 125 members, with the sergeants also present at the same weekly meeting.

In departments of fewer than 125 members the chief should hold weekly meetings of all members who can be excused from active duty and of all off-duty members. In larger departments this general conference may need to be held in more than one section, and limited time may restrict the number of general conferences that can be held, although at least one section meeting should be held each week. A general conference should be held regularly in district stations for district personnel in departments so organized.

Division heads should hold conferences of their personnel in much the same manner. Lieutenants have an opportunity to do so at roll call at the beginning of their shifts.

Commendation. The desire for recognition possessed by all is a force that the chief should utilize to increase substantially the effectiveness of his department. Commendation and praise are more effective tools of leadership than criticism and disciplinary measures. Procedures are needed to bring noteworthy acts to the attention of the chief so that he may take suitable notice of them. Supervising and command officers should watch for and report to the chief commendable acts, and the chief himself should be alert to discover officers who deserve praise.

Commendation may be given in a number of ways. Leaders should use every opportunity to call the attention of others to outstanding accomplishment. This may be done by personal praise in conferences or in the presence of others, or by commendatory notes on the daily bulletin that all members may read and thus know that their efforts are recognized and appreciated. Department publications and the public press are also

effective devices for calling attention to outstanding individual and unit accomplishments. Care should be taken to avoid giving one officer undue praise to the exclusion of others having equal claim to credit. The successful superior gives full credit to the officers of his unit and does not seek commendation for himself.

Perhaps the greatest satisfaction comes to the average police officer from personal recognition and commendation from the chief. In departments of fewer than 200 men, the chief can make mental notes of individual accomplishments and mention them casually when meeting the officer here and there. When this extends to work not publicized, it is even a greater morale builder, because the feeling goes abroad that the boss knows what takes place and gives credit where credit is due.

Democracy in Leadership. The wise leader wins the support of his force to his policies, plans, and procedures before placing them into effect. The imposition on operating personnel of procedures not understood and approved by them nearly always results in failure. Even the most excellent plan will not be operated satisfactorily by unsympathetic policemen.

The chief, therefore, should not inflict on his force policies and procedures which the members are not prepared to approve and accept. He should first win their approval. When his proposals are sound, the approval is usually gained without difficulty; the experience or difficulty may be evidence of the unsuitability of the plan and indicates the need for a reassessment or modification of it.

Opposition to a plan nearly always has its origin in a lack of understanding of its nature and purpose. Conferences afford an opportunity for explanation and persuasion through discussion that will usually win the needed approval and support. Since subordinates who share in the development of procedures usually understand and approve them, the wise leader promotes their participation at every opportunity. Members who understand and support the plan strongly influence the others to accept it.

The best leaders succeed in winning the approval of the majority of the members of their forces to their policies, plans, and procedures; a failure to do so and the arbitrary imposition of procedures on protesting personnel are marks of poor leadership.

Attitude toward Subordinates. The development of morale and the maintenance of a suitable *esprit de corps* are important responsibilities of supervisory officers. Pride in the organization and in its component members, self-confidence and confidence in other officers and superiors, and camaraderie among the officers are essential elements the establishment of which deserve close study and attention by superior officers.

The superior officer must be fair and friendly toward his subordinates but he must not permit undue familiarity. While he should demonstrate that he is squarely behind his men in the proper performance of their duties, he should not lead them to believe that he will support them in derelictions of duty or violations of department rules. He must have a clear concept of the difference between loyalty to his superiors and to the department and loyalty to his subordinates, and he should not be permitted to interpret the protection of subordinates in misconduct as a desirable loyalty.

He must have a clear understanding of the relationship between his own duties and those of his subordinates, and he must avoid performing tasks that should be done by his men. Instead of lessening the responsibilities of his subordinates, he should give them greater authority in order that they may develop, as they must, under the burden of these added obligations. The superior who is so deeply concerned with the efficient performance of the duties of his subordinates as to supervise them in complete detail, even to the point of doing some of their tasks himself, is depriving the subordinates of an opportunity to expand their abilities by exercise. The surest way to kill the initiative and spirit of an individual is to deny him the privilege of working at his own problems.

The superior officer should not place responsibility for an order on superior authority but should give orders as though they emanated from his own mind; otherwise his support of them is weakened. The practice of giving orders in the name of a superior is poor form, a sign of weakness, and it raises doubt in the minds of subordinates as to the confidence of the supervising officer in the wisdom of the order.

Direction and Supervision. The police cannot hope to have their program carried through effectively unless the underlying purpose and method of its attainment is clearly understood from the top of the organization down to the level of execution. When the officer on the street does not understand what is being done and why it is being done as it is, he is not likely to be in sympathy with the operation and consequently will have little incentive to perform his tasks effectively. The success of the most excellent plan is then jeopardized. The superior officer who does not understand the purpose and nature of a plan usually does not support it; this attitude, quickly reflected in his subordinates, almost invariably causes the plan to fail. The administrative staff has a grave obligation to see that its policies and procedures are understood and harmoniously followed throughout the entire department.

The patrol sergeant stands between the administrative and command groups who develop plans and order them into operation and the officers engaged in carrying out the procedure. In this position he has important

responsibilities to both groups. To subordinates he must interpret the purpose of the plan, explain its desirability, and instruct and assist in its execution; for superiors he must be alert to discover evidence of the success or failure of the plan, to detect weaknesses, and to recommend changes to meet actual needs which may fluctuate as a result either of the effectiveness of the program or of changed or unanticipated conditions.

A continuous, well-planned, and wisely directed supervision is essential in the effective administration of any unit within the police department. Without it, the best and most carefully planned program will miscarry. Day-by-day checks must be made to keep the program adjusted to changing needs. Unless careful supervision is maintained, misinterpretations and misunderstanding will creep in, and if permitted to continue without correction, the purpose of the plan may be lost.

The execution of a well-rounded program is dependent upon the well-balanced daily program of the individual officers in charge of carrying on the work. Police officers are prone to be individualists, each having his own ideas regarding the relative importance of the component factors in any program. The supervising officer consequently must scrutinize the day-by-day activity of each subordinate to assure that police energy is directed into the most useful channels.

The well-balanced program may not be the same for each officer because it will vary according to the conditions on each beat. Certain factors, therefore, must be given greater attention on some beats than on others. The supervising officer should outline a suitable program for each officer and exercise his influence to obtain the active cooperation of the subordinate in its achievement.

The supervising officer should follow up on the work being done by his subordinates. From the records division he will receive statistical data which will permit him to understand the relative accomplishments of his men. He must, in turn, provide the records office with information that will assist in tabulating summaries of the accomplishments of his men. He must maintain a day-by-day follow-up over the officers' routine activities, not only to ascertain the suitability of enforcement but also to assure appropriate disposition of cases.⁸

In order to satisfy himself that subordinates are following department procedures and are not slipping into lax operating methods, the superior officer should check continuously on their performance of routine duties. He may do this by observing the officers in action (by accompanying them on patrol, by arriving after they do at the scene of action in order

to observe how they are handling the situation, and by observing them performing the routine tasks of patrol) and by checking on conditions on their beats and on their success in discovering and correcting unsatisfactory conditions. He should not, without proper authority, deviate from the officially established techniques and procedures, but he should search for weaknesses in them and devise improvements to recommend for adoption.

By constant observation and study of his men, the superior officer will detect their strengths and weaknesses. On detecting a weakness or dereliction, he should, without hesitation or procrastination, take immediate action to overcome the weakness or to eliminate the dereliction. This does not necessarily mean that he should take punitive action. A friendly discussion with the officer may accomplish more.

LEADERSHIP OUTSIDE THE DEPARTMENT

The chief has important leadership responsibilities in winning support for his policies and plans from his superiors, other departments and agencies, and the public, and in neutralizing outside influences that are in opposition to the public good. The police are subjected to influences from a wide variety of sources. Both the good and the bad politician, the influential businessman, the civic leader, and the newspaperman all have axes to grind at some time or other. Even the average citizen is not above reminding the police that he is a taxpayer. If the police are to follow an intelligently planned program, they must resist the many influences that tend to divert them from their course.

So far as they are able, the police should enlist the support of these influences at the start. When a man of influence has committed himself in favor of a policy or plan, he will not ordinarily oppose it. When the police fail to enlist this support at the beginning, they have no recourse but to resist influences that oppose their plans.

Understanding Essential to Support. Support is based on understanding; the police cannot progress beyond the understanding of their superiors and the public.⁷ Everyone should be kept informed regarding

"No matter how efficient a police department may be, it will experience difficulty in the establishment of control over the conduct and activities of people unless it develops favorable community opinion. The need for attention to public opinion is heightened by the general unpopularity of police regulations. Police control is more a matter of human relations than of machinelike efficiency. In order to establish the desired control, the police must convince the public of the need for the regulation. They must interpret their acts in such a way as to gain public support for their programs and policies." (Graham and Reining, *op. cit.*, p. 54.)

the nature and purpose of police policies and plans, because those who do not understand will not approve, and those who do not approve are likely to resist and sometimes actively oppose the operation.

While the entire public must be kept informed, some individuals in the community exert such a powerful and widespread influence as to deserve special attention. The police chief is frequently justified in taking these into his confidence and discussing his proposed plans with them in order to assure their understanding and approval and to gain their assistance in informing and winning the support of others and in meeting opposition to the plan.⁸ Especially important is the support of the press. The chief should discuss his plans frankly with them in order to avoid criticisms that sometimes spring from ignorance of the purpose and nature of the operation and to obtain the active help of the newspapers in disseminating information to the public.

Facts Essential to Understanding. Understanding must be based on facts, and the first step is to marshal facts that relate to the operation or on which the policy is based. In whatever field of police activity, be it in recruitment, training, discipline, conditions of service, or traffic, vice, or crime control, facts bearing on the problem should be gathered to guide in the formulation of policy and development of plans. Just as these facts assist the police in reaching their decisions, so may they be used to assist others in reaching an understanding of the police purpose and method.

Interpretation by the Police. The facts gathered by the police must also be interpreted by them in order to assure that correct conclusions are drawn from their consideration. The police likewise have a responsibility to interpret their acts and policies to the public so that all may know the reasons on which they are based, the results obtained, and the probable consequences of failure. The following are examples: (1) the reasons for conspicuous patrol cars, for restricted use of foot patrol, for search for physical evidence at crime and accident scenes; (2) the relationship between enforcement and education, on the one hand, and

"It has been said that if you want the friendship and cooperation of a man, do not do something for him, but get him to do something for you. His ego has been flattered by your request and, if you follow his advice, he has a vested interest in your project. This principle is an important one and is utilized by individual officers and by many departments. As the police succeed in interesting special groups in some phase of police work and in getting them to make a contribution that will identify them with the police, an influence is created by which the community becomes interested in the welfare of the department. The police wisely select things to be done and services to be performed that are not irksome. A nominal service suffices to identify the group with the department." (*Ibid.*, p. 56.)

the accident rate on the other; (3) the conditions that warrant the signalization of an intersection or the installation of stop signs;⁹ (4) the relationship between commercialized vice and organized crime; (5) the reasons for the juvenile-crime-control program.

Meeting Unfavorable Influences. Criticism may sometimes be dissipated by handing back a stiff problem to the critics for solution. When this is done, the objective should be precisely agreed upon to prevent the critic from offering a solution that would rob the questioned policy or procedure of its effectiveness.

To combat influences in important prosecutions that may result in dismissal, reduction of charge, acquittal, or suspended sentence, the police may obtain the support and cooperation of influential organizations of men and women to assure the presence in the courtroom of an interested and determined group of leading citizens. This group usually exerts a more powerful influence than that previously brought by the defense, and irregularity in the handling of the case is then less likely.

Consideration of the Reaction. The police should not act impetuously in undertaking new projects or in making changes in policies and procedures, but they should, instead, consider the probable reaction of the community to their act. The repercussions following an apparently trivial police action sometimes have far-reaching consequences; especially is this true when the customs and traditions of the community, or of a segment of it, are affected, and when the action has not been preceded by a suitable campaign of information.

Flexibility in Leadership. The most successful leader understands the need for proper timing and for bending before community tempests, just as the supple willow bends before the storm and thus withstands its fury more readily than the stiff, unbending oak. The chief who considers his action "a matter of principle" is usually referring to his pride and stubbornness. Principles and objectives must be weighed on the scale of expediency within the framework of no compromise with crime or corruption. The police chief must keep his main objective in view and

For example, when the police have a list of intersections arranged in the order of need for signalization, efforts made to secure signalization of an intersection may be met by the reply, "True, it needs a signal! But there are 23 other intersections that need it even more." Also, when pressure is exerted to bring about the installation of an isolated "stop sign," the police should immediately make a study of the intersection. By determining where it stands on a list of "worst accident" locations, making a collision and condition diagram, and finding the critical speed, the police will discover the facts and establish the actual need. This can then be compared with the action demanded by the citizen to decide whether the need is real, and when it is not, these facts may be used to persuade the citizen of the wisdom of the decision.

yield a secondary objective when to remain obdurate threatens the success of his program. He must not adopt so inexorable an attitude as to create enmities that will forever block the attainment of his purpose. It may not be expedient to make an issue of a secondary matter today. When insistence against powerful influences jeopardizes what has already been accomplished, it is folly not to yield, especially when the point at issue is relatively unimportant.

The world cannot be reformed nor a police department reorganized in a day; an act, directed toward either of these ends, that might fail today may be acceptable tomorrow. The police chief should develop his program and his departmental and community support by doing the easiest things first. Nothing succeeds like success, and as he succeeds with the less difficult, the more difficult become easier to accomplish. The police chief must not compromise or temporize with criminals; neither should he initiate action for which the community has not been prepared. To undertake an act foreordained to failure that may cost him his job is not an intelligent approach to the task of providing the community with the best possible police service. On the other hand, to fail to take suitable action because of probable opposition and unpleasantness is cowardly. A high order of intelligence and judgment is needed to make such important administrative decisions as these.

Avoiding Issues. The great number of influences that are brought to bear on the police places the chief at some time or other in opposition to influential persons in the community, and in consequence some enmity may be created that may rankle in the breasts of all persons concerned. This feeling creates a temptation to make an issue or to meet it squarely, merely as a show of force. Such temptation should be resisted; the chief should avoid issues when nothing is gained by joining battle except a showdown, because he has nothing to gain and much to lose by such action. If he loses, he may find himself out of office; if he wins, he has gained nothing beyond the strengthening of an enmity to the point that it will never be dissipated.

Meeting Issues. The chief may, however, be confronted with an issue that clearly jeopardizes his objectives and the public good. He must then prepare to meet it, and he should meet it squarely with all the force he can muster. For example, an issue involving compromise with crime and corruption cannot be dodged; it must always be met squarely.

"No" Is Sometimes the Wrong Answer. The police must not build up such a "sales resistance" to outside influence as to be unable to consider worth-while proposals. Constant guarding against pressures and frequent denial of requests tend to establish a behavior pattern that

prompts the police to say "No" when they might better say "Yes." They must guard themselves against putting on such a thick defensive armor that they cannot distinguish between influence and wise suggestions and advice. The police should not say "No" until they have studied all the facts.

Police Mistakes. The only man who never makes a mistake is the one who never does anything. So long as there are police departments, there will be errors of judgment, operations that fail to turn out as planned, and acts that are justifiably subject to criticism. The wise chief, confronted by evidence of such mistakes on the part of his department, should acknowledge them frankly and willingly; he should not attempt to place blame on subordinates for unwise administrative decisions in which he participated. He should demonstrate a willingness to change his mind when shown that he is wrong, and he should do so cheerfully, gracefully, and wholeheartedly, never sullenly and reluctantly.

Resourcefulness of the Leader. The chief must be resourceful in developing suitable working arrangements with municipal staff agencies to assure maximum advantage to the police department. For example, a desirable working relationship with the central personnel agency, as discussed in a previous chapter, is important, especially when this agency is independent of the administrative head of the city or has authority granted to it by law that may interfere with the control of members of the police force by the chief. Frank discussions of objectives are usually productive of the desired end; when these fail, the problem is one that should be worked out by the chief with the head of the city.

The chief must also be resourceful in the implementation of his policy in order that it may be found acceptable in the community. His success in this depends on the success of his public relations program and on his success in winning the approval of influential citizens and groups to his policies and programs.

SUMMARY

Police administrators who recognize their problems and apply sound corrective measures, and who are not discouraged by opposition or setbacks of a temporary nature, will effect a substantial reduction in the present social and economic cost of crime, vice, juvenile delinquency, accidents, and traffic congestion. The need for effective police service is indicated by the enormity of the consequences of the failure to eradicate contributing factors and otherwise to prevent these incidents. Conditions that result in wasted and crippled lives, in death, heartache, and sorrow, and in tremendous economic losses must be corrected. The

steady increase in the price exacted indicates that these problems will not solve themselves. Rather, the hope that they would solve themselves has been a factor in permitting their growth to continue.

The fact that methods are available for the amelioration of these problems is no longer debatable. The favorable experiences of administrators who have made determined efforts to eliminate vice, to reduce delinquency, and to bring about improved traffic control refute the outmoded concept of vice as a necessary evil, of bad boys as being unreformable limbs of Satan, of accidents as unavoidable incidents, and of traffic congestion as being commercially desirable. The police, through community organizations, have the means to lessen the evils listed above; putting these procedures into operation remains to be done.

However, it is not intended to imply that this can be done without difficulty or that such means offer a complete solution. These problems cannot be completely solved but they can be brought under reasonable control by intelligent and courageous attacks.

Police initiative in effecting an amelioration of the undesirable conditions is imperative. The substantial and immediate gains to be realized from the application of suitable enforcement in the solution of most of the problems cannot be obtained without action by the police. The present apathy and indecision of agencies that have some responsibility in their solution must be transformed into decisive action through a coordinated community interest and direction. The police should undertake community organization to these ends.

The taking of initiative involves more than starting a program along a route already laid out by others. Individual police departments must develop new techniques, new principles, and new procedures that will make their attack more effective and contribute something to the attacks being waged in other communities. Progress can be assured by the application of energy, ingenuity, and courage in the evolution of new and better methods and procedures.

An attempt has been made in this book to describe the elements essential to successful attack. The recommended practices have proved effective in practical application. They do not represent all the procedures in use today, and it is hoped that improvements will be developed in the future. These elements may perhaps be best summarized by reviewing the main features of a sound police administrative program.

1. The police department must be suitably staffed. Conditions of service must be made attractive, and the best persons available must be selected for appointment and promotion. A high level of performance must be assured by recruit and continuous in-service training and by

discipline. Incompetent and otherwise unqualified officers must be removed from the service. Police officers must be indoctrinated in a philosophy of service devoid of all false concepts of power over the citizens they are charged with serving, and continuous attention must be given to the relationship between the police and the public.

2. The force must be suitably equipped with headquarters, transportation, communication, office, laboratory, and other operating equipment. Mechanical devices to conserve man power must be utilized in police operations and traffic control. Foot patrol should be restricted to areas where conditions make automobile patrol unsuited. Two-man patrol cars should not be used except in areas where and when conditions would require foot patrolmen to operate in pairs. Patrol cars should be conspicuously marked. Two-wheeled motorcycles should not be used.

3. The force must be organized in a manner to assure effective direction, coordination, and control. Organization units must be carefully articulated so that the force will operate as a whole; relationships between the units must be precisely defined. All police duties must be assigned to someone, and all component members and units must have unavoidable and clearly understood responsibilities. Controls must be established to assure that each is held accountable for his use of, or failure to use, authority. Procedures for authoritative and staff inspections and supervision must be established.

4. Systems and procedures must be established that will assure the recording, compilation, and analysis of facts that relate to every field of police service so that action may be wisely planned.

5. Department procedures must be outlined to guide in the performance of every police operation and in meeting every situation that may arise. A duty manual should be published, records operations and reporting regulations outlined, and field procedures and tactical plans prepared.

6. The community must be organized to support police programs and assist in the solution of police problems, especially in the fields of traffic, organized crime, and juvenile-crime control.

7. Procedures must be developed and man power organized and directed toward the apprehension and prosecution of criminals and the recovery of stolen property.

8. Organized crime must be driven from the community and prevented from reappearing by the stringent suppression of gambling, prostitution, and narcotic traffic, and the strict supervision and control of the retail liquor trade.

9. Motorists and pedestrians must be controlled with a minimum of inconvenience and penalty in a manner to assure maximum speed and safety in traffic. The police staff should include a competent traffic

engineer. Attention must likewise be given to public education. Public compliance with regulations must be won with minimum punitive enforcement.

10. Delinquency-inducing conditions in the community must be eradicated and replaced by wholesome activities; attention must be given to the discovery and treatment of the delinquent child and to those exposed to situations that may cause maladjustments and consequent antisocial behavior. The social-welfare aspects of police service should be emphasized. Treatment should be obtained for the physically, mentally, and emotionally ailing.

11. The patrol force should be recognized as the backbone of the department and should be held responsible for the attainment of all police objectives. Although special divisions must be created for planning and staff direction, their activities at the level of execution should be restricted to tasks that may be performed substantially better by the specialist than by patrolmen and to those that, when performed by patrolmen, interfere with regular patrol duties.

12. The force must be steeped in a sound philosophy of public service. This may be accomplished by the adoption of the following British police principles.¹⁰

a. To prevent crime and disorder, as an alternative to their repression by military force and by severity of legal punishment.

b. To recognize always that the power of the police to fulfill their functions and duties is dependent on public approval of their existence, actions, and behavior, and on their ability to secure and maintain public respect.

c. To recognize always that to secure and maintain the respect and approval of the public means also the securing of the willing cooperation of the public in the task of securing observance of laws.

d. To recognize always that the extent to which the cooperation of the public can be secured diminishes, proportionately, the necessity of the use of physical force and compulsion for achieving police objectives.

e. To seek and to preserve public favor, not by pandering to public opinion, but by constantly demonstrating absolutely impartial service to law, in complete independence of policy, and without regard to the justice or injustice of the substance of individual laws; by ready offering of individual service and friendship to all members of the public without regard to their wealth or social standing; by ready exercise of courtesy and friendly good humor; and by ready offering of individual sacrifice in protecting and preserving life.

f. To use physical force only when the exercise of persuasion, advice, and warning is found to be insufficient to obtain public cooperation to an extent necessary to secure observance of law or to restore order; and to use only the minimum

degree of physical force which is necessary on any particular occasion for achieving a police objective.

g. To maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen, in the interests of community welfare and existence.

h. To recognize always the need for strict adherence to police-executive functions, and to refrain from even seeming to usurp the powers of the judiciary of avenging individuals or the state, and of authoritatively judging guilt and punishing the guilty.

i. To recognize always that the test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, and not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with them.

APPENDIX

DISTRIBUTION OF POLICE PATROL FORCE¹

Until recent years, the practice in organizing the work in almost all police departments has been to distribute the patrol force evenly among three 8-hour shifts, and to assign the officers to beats of equal area. This method of distribution was evidence either of a lack of knowledge concerning the hourly and geographical fluctuations of the police load, or of indifference to the possible increase in efficiency resulting from a distribution of the force throughout the day over the area to be served on the basis of need. When beats of equal area are established without regard for variations in need for police service, some will have several times the amount of police work required by others.

With the advent of the police car for patrol service the problem of distribution remained fundamentally unchanged, except that the patrol was expanded to cover the entire city. At first the city was divided into a number of districts of equal area. When the number of patrol cars was very limited, this procedure sometimes resulted in fairly equitable division, especially in smaller cities whose expansion had been relatively homogeneous. In such cities, the four districts formed by the intersecting of the main streets frequently were constituted patrol districts, and often such districts were similar in area and in police hazards.

But as the number of patrol cars increased, the inequality of the police load in districts of equal area became apparent to some police chiefs and they attempted to equalize loads by varying the size of the districts. At first they relied entirely on their memory of the distribution of offenses and estimated the need for police service in the various sections of the community on the basis of their knowledge of conditions in those sections. When the unreliability of such distribution became apparent, a few developed pin maps to show the location of offenses; this step was the beginning of a statistical method for determining the needs for patrol distribution.

Efforts were made by the Wichita, Kansas, police department, beginning in 1931, to develop a statistical method of distributing the patrol force in proportion to need. The method that finally evolved, described in detail in this study, has been used in the distribution of the patrol forces of several cities.²

The method used in the patrol distribution is based on some underlying principles relating to the measurement of the need for patrol service that should be understood. These are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Some factors used in the earlier Wichita patrol distributions were found to be unsuited to the purpose; they are also discussed in the following pages in explanation of the distribution procedure that was finally developed.

MEASURES ARE BASED ON HAZARDS AND RESULTS OF HAZARDS

Patrolmen should be distributed in proportion to the need for police service. The essence of the distribution problem lies in measuring the proportionate need. The need derives from police hazards. Hazards are situations and conditions that may cause crimes or any occurrences requiring police attention, such as an accident, a traffic tangle, a lost person, or a lost piece of property (see Chap. 5). Patrol services intended to meet this need may be divided into three types: (1) Services called for because of incidents that result from police hazards, (2) the inspection of hazards that can be identified and isolated, and (3) routine patrol intended to neutralize or minimize the less tangible hazards (see Chap. 5).

At first thought it would seem that the need for patrol service should be measured in terms of the time spent by patrolmen in performing called-for services. Data for estimating the amount of time that must be spent by a patrolman in investigating each type of offense, accident, or miscellaneous complaint, and in making an arrest, should be readily available.

But not all of a patrolman's time is spent in this way.³ The time spent in performing inspectional and routine patrol services must also

The method was applied by the author in the distribution of the patrol forces of San Antonio, Tex.; Greensboro, N.C.; Pasadena, Calif.; and Hartford, Conn. See reports of police surveys of these cities, Public Administration Service, Chicago. A modification of the method has been used by the police of some other cities.

be ascertained. Theoretically, it should be possible to isolate a hazard and measure it in terms of the time a patrolman must spend in counteracting it. The time required to provide any desired quality (in terms of frequency) of inspectional service may be determined, but an analysis of intangible hazards with which routine patrol is concerned reveals the difficulty of measuring the time necessary to neutralize them. Intangible hazards make difficult an objective or absolute measure of the need for patrol service.⁴

An equitable distribution of the patrol force can be made, however, without an absolute measure of the need for patrol in terms of minutes of service. The time in minutes is required only to ascertain the man power needed on each shift for inspectional services. The relative need for other services can be ascertained for each hour of the day and for each area in the community; the force can be distributed in proportion to the time and territorial distribution of this relative need, taking into consideration the man-hours needed on each shift for inspectional services.

A distribution of the patrol force based on an absolute measure of the need in terms of minutes of time needed to perform a satisfactory quality of service seems impractical for the following reasons: (1) There has not yet been developed an absolute measure of the time needed for a satisfactory routine patrol, and (with the exception of patrolmen whose duties are almost entirely inspectional) most of a patrolman's time is spent in routine patrol. (2) There likewise has not yet been established a standard of optimum patrol strength. (3) Even though the above two deficiencies were met, unless the patrol force was precisely of the optimum strength, it would be necessary to distribute it in proportion to the need. (4) Whenever a proportional distribution is made,

more involved techniques in recent years has probably lengthened this average time, although no studies have been made to determine the amount of increase. In Wichita, there were 10,132 incidents calling for service during the 3:00 to 11:00 P.M. tour in the 15-month period ended Mar. 31, 1931. If it were assumed that each service called for required 1 hour of a patrolman's time (and this is a liberal assumption in view of the time studies just described) a total of 10,132 man-hours were required to meet the need for called-for services. There was a total of 14 patrolmen assigned to this tour during the entire 15-month period, or a total of 50,400 man-hours devoted to patrol duty. Therefore only 20 per cent of the total duty time was needed to perform called-for services.

⁴ If it were possible to measure accurately the time required to eliminate or minimize both tangible and intangible hazards by inspection and routine patrol, this time, plus the time needed to perform called-for services, would be an absolute measure of needed patrol strength. This study, however, does not attempt to answer the question of how many men are needed for patrol; it is limited to a consideration of the distribution of those available, whether the number is adequate or not (see footnote 9, Chap. 6).

the proportional need is the same, whether expressed in terms of proportional number of incidents or proportional amount of time needed to deal with them.⁵ (5) An absolute measure of the required patrol time must be based on complete data. As will be shown later, time and location data are unknown in some cases; the proportion with missing data may be high.

Measuring the Relative Need. The total hazard in a community resulting in need for police service is the sum of a multitude of varied and complex conditions and situations, many of them intangible and difficult to isolate for purposes of analysis and measurement. However, hazards result in crimes, offenses, accidents, complaints, and arrests whose frequency may be taken as a measure of the hazards. The measure is made, not in terms of the hours and minutes spent in handling cases or in neutralizing or minimizing the hazards, but in terms of the proportional distribution of the incidents that result from these hazards among the various patrol areas and time periods. If one area or shift has twice as many crimes, offenses, accidents, miscellaneous complaints, and arrests as another area or shift, it may be assumed that it has approximately twice the amount of hazards resulting in need for police service.

Called-for Services. For purposes of patrol distribution, the proportional distribution of crimes and offenses committed, accidents, miscellaneous complaints, and arrests serves as a reasonably accurate and satisfactory measure on which to base the proportional distribution of the need for called-for services.

Preventive Patrol Service. Certain patrol services are performed for the purpose of preventing calls for services. Crimes, accidents, and other incidents resulting in calls for service may be avoided by trying store doors, by spending an hour at a dangerous intersection, or by inspecting pool halls, taverns, dance halls, and other recreational centers and requiring compliance with regulations. The need for and character of these duties vary with the time of the day. Accident frequency follows closely the ebb and flow of traffic. Recreational centers require attention in the evenings especially, although some types may have heavy patronage in the afternoons and others during the late hours of the night. The peak hours at recreational centers will vary considerably with the day.

For example, if 1,000 store tries must be made on one shift and they average x minutes each, $1,000x$ minutes are needed. If 200 of the store tries are on one beat, $200x$ minutes of that patrolman's time is thus spent. This means that 20 per cent of the store tries are found on that beat; it also means that 20 per cent of the time spent in trying store doors on that shift is spent on that beat. The proportion (20 per cent) is the same, regardless of whether it be computed in terms of store tries or minutes spent in trying store doors.

of the week. The danger of store burglaries is greater after closing hours, and especially during the late hours of the night. If the time spent by a patrol force in needed inspectional services is plotted over the hours of the day and night, the chart will show wide variations.

Inspectional Services. Some of the more important patrol duties may be measured in terms of the number of minutes required in their performance. This is true of the inspection of tangible hazards that may be identified and that take a large part of the total patrol time. Included are store tries and the inspection of dance halls, poolrooms, taverns, bars, and other establishments. The number of man-hours required on each shift to perform any desired quality of inspectional service may, therefore, be readily ascertained. In planning the beat layout on any shift, however, it is unnecessary to measure the need for inspectional services in terms of absolute time; for all practical purposes it may be measured in terms of the proportional number of inspectional duties performed. For example, if one beat has twice as many stores requiring tries as another, then twice as many man-hours should be provided.

Routine Patrol. There are other police hazards that are so intangible that their isolation and measurement is practically impossible. The time spent in routine patrol is devoted to these less tangible hazards. The proportion of total time devoted to intangible hazards will vary with the beat. The need for attention to intangible hazards is best measured in terms of the results of the hazards. When two beats have equal needs for the inspection of identifiable hazards (inspectional services), the intangible hazards on one beat will exceed those on another somewhat in proportion to the extent to which the number of calls for service on the one exceeds that on the other.

Summary. The relative need for the three types of patrol service, therefore, may be measured as follows: (1) called-for services in terms of the relative frequency of incidents that call for service, (2) inspectional service in terms of the relative number of places that require inspections that are comparable in time required, and (3) routine patrol in terms of the relative frequency of incidents that result from intangible hazards, which is, for all practical purposes, the same as item 1 above.

FACTORS USED IN WICHITA TIME DISTRIBUTION

In planning the distribution of the patrol force in Wichita in . three factors were taken as a measure of the need for police service during the various hours of the day and night: (1) the number of complaints, (2) the number of booked arrests, and (3) the amount

